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ABSTRACT

This volume contains six essays on both theory and practical learning techniques for second language learning. In "Towards a Synthesization of Teaching Methodologies for TESOL," James W. Ney discusses synthesizing the audio-lingual approach and the cognitive-code theory of language learning. In "Should We Teach Children Syntax?" Heidi C. Dulay and Marina C. Burt provide data on the "habit formation" vs. "creative construction" nature of second language learning by children and report on a second study that sought to determine whether there is a natural sequence in children's acquisition of basic syntactic structures in learning different second languages. In "Community Language Learning: A Discussion and Some Questions," Richard L. Light addresses the emotional as well as the cognitive aspects that are involved in learning. In a review of Caleb Gattegno's book, "Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way," Earl W. Stevick describes the Silent Way, which involves temporary silence after the teacher presents new material. In "Non-Verbal Communication in the Classroom: A Frill or a Must?" Carmen Judith Nine-Curt discusses non-verbal communication across cultures in ESOL and bilingual classrooms, including kinesis (movement), proxemic (space), haptic (touching), and parakinesic dimensions of communication. In "Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States," William E. Norris presents a revision of criteria adopted by the TESOL Guidelines Conference, May 1970, and a preliminary draft by James E. Alatis. (SW)

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE:

Perspectives and Practices

CURRENT ISSUES

5th of a series

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE:
PERSPECTIVES AND PRACTICES

A Series of Six Texts

Current Issues in Second Language Teaching

FIFTH OF A SERIES

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FOREWORD

Teaching English as a Second Language: Perspectives and Practices is designed to assist those who work with non-English dominant students by providing resource information relevant to the processes of second language teaching and learning. The articles encompass both theory and practical learning techniques in six general topics and have been compiled in response to increased interest in the education of learners whose native language is other than English. It is becoming more widely recognized that such students can benefit from formal instruction in English as a second language as well as efforts to maintain and utilize their native language and culture. This series replaces the previous Teaching English as a Second Language Series.

This is the fifth of a series of six volumes. Other volumes of the series are the following:

Background and Approaches

Speaking and Understanding

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English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
PERSPECTIVES AND PRACTICES

A Series of Six Texts

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TOWARDS A SYNTHESIZATION OF TEACHING METHODOLOGIES FOR TESOL

James W. Ney *

In his 1971 keynote address to the TESOL Convention in New Orleans, John B. Carroll has suggested that language teachers should effect a synthesis for second-language pedagogy embracing aspects of both the audio-lingual habit theory and the cognitive-code learning theiry (1971:2). In a separately published study, theoretical justification for seeking such a synthesis has been pursued (Ney, 1971: 63-73). Basically, this justification is sought for in the fact that surface structures of languages differ radically and that certain aspects of these differing surface structures must be learned by 'imitation' (Chomsky, 1959:42) and 'reinforcement' (Chomsky, 1959:43). As John Lyons has pointed out? "Chomsky's criticisms of behaviorism are undoubtedly valid. It does not follow, of course (and as far as I know Chomsky has never claimed that it does), that no aspects of language, or the use of language, can be reasonably described in terms of a 'stimulus-and-response'model" (1970:94-95). That is, it would appear that certain facets of behavioristic conditioning are not necessarily to be excluded from the language-learning process. Similarly, it has been noted that generalizations or 'rules' facilitate learning in the verbal operant conditioning paradigm (Spielberger and DeNike, 1966:321). Thus, an assessment of transformational-generative theories of language and verbal operant conditionin g experiments suggests a model for language teaching that incorporates features of both the cognitive-code learning theory and the audio-lingual habit theory. In effect, this model would employ the facts of universal grammar from transformational theories of language as the generalizations which facilitate learning in the conditioning surface forms in the target language. In this manner, cognitive learning as described by the cognitive-code theory is combined with conditioning devices from the audiolingual theory to produce a synthesized teaching strategy as suggested in Figure 1.

Cognitive Learning		Linguistic Abstractions Rules of Grammar and Phonology	
Behavioristic Conditioning	Surface Structure of Native Language	Repetition Pattern Practice Imitation	Surface Structure of Target Language

Figure 1: Schematic representation of the teaching strategy implied by the synthesization of the cognitive-code and audio-lingual theories of language learning. Behavioristic conditioning enables the student to learn the surface, spoken or written forms of the target language. Cognitive learning mediates between the surface structures of the target and native languages and thus facilitates learning.

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Although theoretical justification of a synthesization of the two theories is sought from this basis, the practical implications of this synthesis as yet have not been examined with any degree of thoroughness. These implications will have to be examined in the areas of: (1) the manipulation of linguistic structures in pattern practices and other types of language exercises; (2) the question of mastering the grammar of the target language by induction or by deduction; (3) the maintenance of the natural order of language learning, i.e.,listening first followed by speaking, reading, and writing in that order; (4) the use of translation in language learning; and (5) the use of contextual drills and exercises in the language-learning process. It is the object of this report to examine practices utilized within the framework of the two methodologies in the five areas reported above and to determine the practicability of their use in a synthesized model for teaching foreign languages and, in particular, for teaching English as a second language.

Foremost among the devices used by practitioneers of the audio-lingual method has been pattern practice. Consequently, any discussion of manipulation of language structures in a synthesis of the two theories will have to deal with the use of this device. In the past, linguists and language teachers who have used pattern practice have done so in the belief that they were conditioning students to use the patterns of the target language habitually and with a degree of automaticity. Chomsky pointed out that it is extremely unlikely that certain aspects of language usage can be learned by conditioning. These aspects of language generally have to do with the recursive properties of natural languages and the creative aspects of language behavior. So it is that, although transformationalists may be willing to admit that conditioning accounts for some aspects of language learning, they are not willing to state that it accounts for all aspects of language learning.

By the same token, no structuralist ever insisted that all of language could be learned through pattern practice. In fact, the well-known statement by C.C. Fries insisted that the learning of a language consisted largely in what might be designated as the learning of a micro-language, a small portion of an actual language:

> A person has 'learned' a foreign language when he has thus first, within a limited vocabulary mastered the sound system . . .and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangements of utterances) matters of automatic habit. (1945:3)

Mr. Ney, Associate Professor of English at Arizona State University, is author of more than thirty articles and reviews on language and language teaching. He is co-author of the widely used ESL tests *Readings from Samual Clemens*, *Reading in the Philosophy of Science*, and *Readings on American Society*. He has held Visiting Professorships at the Universities of Miami, Hawaii, Montreal, Western New Mexico, and George Peabody College.

It is a apparent that Fries expected the student to learn only a very small part of language in the classroom. The student was expected to master more of the target language by processes that the structural linguists never fully explained but which the transformationalists now are suggesting. That is, structurally oriented language teachers were invariably instructed to "teach the problem areas," the areas in which languages differed most radically in their surface structures. It may be that structuralists were acknowledging a principle which now can be verbalized in the following terms because of advances in the understanding of languages? Features of universal grammar do not need to be taught by the foreign language instructor since they are determined by the innate structuring of the human neurological mechanism. Only the surface features which differ from language should concern the language teacher and the rules or the transformations which result in the differences of these surface structures. Some of these, at least, amy be learned through conditioning or memorization, a learning device that may rely on some kind of auto-conditioning. (See, for instance, Robin Lakoff, 1969:123.)

The suggestion that conditioning tactics should still be used in language teaching does not necessarily imply that other principles associated with behavioristically based teaching methods should be retained. For instance, audio-lingual theorists generally suggested that grammar should be learned by induction; this principle is in no way a necessary facet of a synthesized model for language teaching. Similarly, audio-lingual exercises designed to condition certain phonological or structural surface features of a language are very often context-less, that is, a single exercise very often has no context of meaning so that the subject matter of a single exercise might wander from one topic to another. This is not a necessary feature of exercises designed to "condition" a student to use the surface structures of a target language. It is not the intention here to argue for a retention of pattern practices as they have often been constructed in the past. It is simply the purpose of these comments to emphasize the point that John B. Carroll made in his TESOL Convention speech in 1971: stimulus, response, and conditioning are indispensable concepts in the psychology of learning (1971:7) and should not be discarded by the language teacher.

So then, since it is here recommended that pattern practices be retained as a classroom strategy for the conditioning of surface forms of a language, it might be wise to examine one major objection that is often made against the use of pattern drills. This objection is usually stated quite simply: pattern practices are boring (Cole, 1966). See also Jakobobits, 1970:50). There is no doubt that pattern drills can be extremely boring when classroom factors prevent the teacher from using drills which are sufficiently challenging to the students. If a teacher is forced to go over the same patterns again and again because of slow students in a class with mixed ability grouping, the brighter students soon become bored with the constant repetition of exercises that have the same form and vocabulary. Boredom, however, is not a necessary consequence of pattern practice. When pattern practices are conducted well with classes of relatively homogeneous ability grouping and reasonable size, and when they are of sufficient complexity and variation to challenge the students, they are not boring.

At this point, it might be mentioned that some teachers confuse their own boredom with pattern drills for the boredom of the students. For teachers who know the language, there is nothing intrinsically interesting in pattern drills. For them, there are only the same sentences with the same vocabulary in the same patterns that are already known well. Interest for the teachers must reside in the responses of students to certain cues and in maintaining class rhythm while they shape the studnets' linguistic behavior through successive approximation.

It is rather strange, however, that many teachers who complain about the boredom inherent in pattern drills offer as a substitute tactics such as the following: (1) Having five students conjugate the present perfect of *cantar* in Spanish at the blackboard while 20 students idle at their seats in listless boredom. (Fortunately, instances of this teaching strategy have not been noticed recently by this observer is TESOL classes.) (2) Explaining fine points of English grammar in the native language of the student for 30 or 40 minutes while the students sit passively listening. (3) Lecturing on the subleties of James Thurber's humor, O'Henry's plotted stories or the rhetorical development of written paragraphs in English to students who have only a basic command of English as their second language. (4) Having the students translate sentences from their native language to English or from English to their native language orally and individually while fellow students follow the halting translations with eyes glued to their own texts. In ten years of professional experience, I have observed more student boredom in classes employing the above strategies than in classes where students have been actively engaged in pattern drills. Where students have been free to choose teachers and classes, it has been the perception of this observer that they have more often chosen the audio-lingual classes than grammar-translation classes using the strategy characterized in (2) above. Furthermore, it would seem that practices already extant in audio-lingual classes can be adapted to satisfy the need for transformation exercises and the "temporal integration of phonological skills . . .through practice and repetition" that the cognitively oriented psycholinguist, Jakobovits (1970:20-21), finds desirable for foreign language courses.

In this manner, a model for teaching based on a synthesization of audio-lingual and cognitive-code methods would include pattern practices with or without some modification. It may require, however, that the strict audio-lingual methodologist's insistence on the learning of grammar by induction be relegated to the past history of language teaching grammatical facts implicit in a pattern drill, and if they cannot present generalizations in the native language of the students, it may be just as well to let students rely on their implicit knowledge of universal grammar or to puzzle the facts of grammar together for themselves. But if teachers can succinctly make statements about the grammatical facts in a given pattern drill, they should do it. C.C. Fries was not as doctrinaire as other audio-lingual methodologists on this point. He states:

> An adult can be helped considerably in building up the necessary habits if the basic matters of this required knowledge are definitely stated in generalizations for his guidance. Unless the experienced linguist does formulate or describe them for the learner, that learner either must attempt to grasp them for himself or approach a language as if it were a multitude of disparate items to be memorized. (1945:29)

It would also appear that wherever grammatical explanations are employed a careful check should be maintained on the student,s comprehension of the relevant details of that explanation. For most students, this may require that they be given practice in recognizing grammatical categories in their native language.

For example, English, as other Indo-European languages, employs a combination of tense and aspect in the surface markings of verbs. With the present tense marker, the iterative aspect is usually signaled by the simple present and durative aspects is usually signaled by the present progressive. But for a small set of verbs, which may be designated as verbs of sensation, the simple present signals the durative aspects use of the present progressive produces ungrammatical strings in the following sentences:

(1) Iterative aspect; simple present tense
The old man drinks a lot of milk.

(2) Durative aspect; present progressive tense
The olk man is drinking a lot of milk now.

(3) Durative aspect; simple present
The flower smells very nice.

(4) Ungrammatical sentence; present progressive tense
*The flower is smelling very nice now.

Now, if the teacher decides that the grammatical facts in sentances (1) through (4) should be presented to students, then it may be necessary first to train the students in recognizing tense and aspect markings in the native language. This is especially important if the students' native language has overt markings in the verb for only one or the other grammatical categories. Then the grammatical facts can be presented to the students, preferably in the students' native language, and pattern practices in the target language can then be used to give students facility in the use of the patterns covered by the grammatical explanation. But it would appear that if student interest is to be maintained, grammatical explanations by the teacher should be kept to a minimum. Student involvement in practicing the structures in the target language and participation in practices used to enhance understanding of grammatical concepts and categories should be preponderant.

As far as the order for attacking the skills involved in language learning is concerned, it is apparent that aspects of current linguistic theory have little to offer as a guide to teachers on the order of pre-

sentation of the representations of language. Since for the structural linguistics language was speech, it followed quite logically that language should be presented in listening and speaking exercises first and then in reading and writing exercises. No such theoretical dictum can be found in transformational theory. To be sure, Chomsky and Halle have stated that "conventional orthography "is "a near optimal system for the lexical representation of English works" (1968:49). But they admit that for actor or a non-native speaker a phonemic or a phonetic alphabet would be more useful (1968:50).

John B. Carrol has suggested that a strategy for learning or teaching that relies too heavily on one sense modality is deficient insofar as it neglects the other sense modalities (1965:280). It might also be pointed out that the peoples of Eastern cultures have traditionally utilized the visual sense modality very extensively in educational theory and practice, especially in their reliance on the printed word. Thus, it would appear that any strict prohibition of the use of written English even in the early stages of language learning should be discarded. The implications of an early use of written English in a TESOL program cannot be explored in a single comprehensive statement. Presumably, the vocabulary in early lessons could be restricted to the regularly spelled lexical items of the language. The problem with this oft-repeated dictum is that for too many of the very common words in the English language are not spelled regularly. For instance, the phonological form /tuw/ can be spelled with three different graphic representations: *to, two and too*. The very common proverb form, *does*, is spelled like *toes* or *woes*, but has quite a different phonological representation. *Women* has the only instance of the letter o representing the vowel /i/ in English, and so on. Anyone, then, who insists that the regularly spelled vocabulary of English be used in beginning lessons is quite likely to be forced into the use of stilted language.

And yet, how else can the written forms be used in the beginning English class? One other approach may be to introduce the written word simultaneously with the spoken word regardless of the question of regular or irregular spellings and regardless of the interference caused by spelling pronunciations and the transference of the reading habits from native to foreign language. This ultimately may be the only approach to use in a synthesization of methodologies for TESOL and a simultaneous use of all four language skills from the very start of the language program.

Similarly, it would appear that the strict audio-lingual taboo against translation should be dispensed with. As Postal and Lakoff have observed (1970:111), it is quite likely that the Mohawk or Hungarian translation equivalents of **The idea tried the rock* will be ungrammatical. In the same way, it is also likely that the Arabic equivalent of *table* will be marked (-animate) and therefore also (-human). Since a simple translation from one language to another conveys this kind of information, it can be relied on to do just that at some points. In retrospect, it is interesting to note that some of the early structuralist language teaching programs such as the Bloch and Jorden *Spoken Japanese* (1945) used translation rather freely although rather indiscriminately. Chastain and Woerdehoff (1968:273) in their use of the cognitive-code method of teaching "recalled to the minds

of the students" the meaning of the example sentences for each drill in the native language of the students. These sentences had been previously memorized in the dialogue used with each lesson.

Translation will always have to be used with care, however, because it can convey false information. It may not be wise to have the Spanish student translate *Tengo hambre--I have hunger* instead of the normal--*I am hungry*. Obviously, at this point, text materials need to be developed which indicate those areas between languages where translation aids the student in transferring knowledge about his native language for use in the target language. They should also indicate those areas where translation may result in negative transfer or interference. But, in any case, simple prohibition against the use of translations that were common in audio-lingual method texts can obviously no longer be regarded with unquestioning acceptance. Further work needs to be done on the role of translation in a synthesized methodology. Nevertheless, teachers should have few inhibitions about providing translations for the curious student; they should merely exercise care in the use of translation so that it does not detract from time that should be spent on exercises in the target language.

Finally, a synthesis of the cognitive-code and audio-lingual habit theory for teaching English as a second language or any other foreign language should consider very carefully the problem of contextualizing language exercises. The audio-lingual insistence on practicing structures of the same kind in a single exercise very often resulted in the production of pattern practices that lacked any kind of coherence; a single exercise might focus on five or six different topics. Pattern practices and other kinds of exercises can be contextualized by the use of several different approaches. One of these, the use of realia, has definite limitations; it is quite easy to practice *Open the door* or *Give me the notebook* with real objects in the classroom. But, obviously, *Don't park the car by the fire hydrant* and *Never cheat on an examination* provide real diffeculty for the total physical response or contextualization in a real situation.

Some of the exercises designed to teach various aspects of grammar can be contextualized by the use of pictures or charts. Conceivably, even motion pictures could be used to contextualize such exercises. But the cost factor obviously limits the use of the latter. Dialogues have frequently been used to contextualize language teaching materials, but here two factors limit the effectiveness of dialogues as devices for the contextualization of language practice. The classroom is at best an artificial situation for a dialogue; the attempt to provide the context or situation for a dialogue on ordering groceries in the classroom is at best rather weak. Furthermore, dialogues do not permit the focus of the textbook writer to concentrate on a single grammatical fact with ease. For these two reasons, the context of the written work provides the most satisfactory base for the contextualization of language patterns. Essays, and short stories can be used with ease to provide a context for exercises on a variety of language patterns. Furthermore, as long as teachers are not limited to the natural order for the introduction of language skills, contextualization through the use of literary material can be used quite freely.

Such contextualization has been used widely in the Imamura and Ney *Audio-Lingual Literary Series* (1969).

In this brief survey, it has been impossible to extensively investigate any of the topics that have been broached. The attempt has been made, however, to discuss some of the issues involved in a synthesizing of the audio-lingual approach and the cognitive-code theory of language learning. From this discussion, it should be apparent that each of the issues raised needs further investigation. It is also hoped that a discussion of these issues has demonstrated that synthesization is practicable in the classroom between the strategies implicit in the two methodologies. Regardless of the success or failure of the present article, however, it is in the interest of language teachers to attempt a synthesis of the two methodologies for as Chastain has indicated after experimentation involving teaching from the audio-lingual and the cognitive-code methods: "The implication here is that the best of both methods be combined into a synthesis for all students. . ." (1970:266).

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SHOULD WE TEACH CHILDREN SYNTAX?

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Introduction

Research seldom does any practical favors for teachers in the sense that is does not usually provide teachers with shortcuts. Individualized instruction, for example, whose value few of us would doubt, requires more teaching time, machine time, and materials than ever before. Recommendations made by "experts" and researchers usually involve the teacher's spending more time, more energy, and even working many hours after school in order to create new learning environments for children in the classroom. It is with great pleasure, therefore, that we report some research findings in the area of child second language syntax that suggest the opposite: less teaching time and energy may result in better learning.

This suggestion emerges-perhaps tentatively, but nevertheless compellingly-from our comparison of the processes of first (LI) and second language (L2) acquisition by children. In the last fifteen years of L1 research, the emphasis has shifted from a search for environmental factors such as reinforcement and frequency of stimulus-response associations, to a search for the innate ability of the human child to organize speech data. (See Brown 1973a for a short and comprehensive review of research.) While it is obvious that there must be differences between L2 and L1 acquisition because of differences in the conceptual repertoir, memory span, and previous language learning experience of L2 and L1 learners, the discovery in L1 research of the fundamental process of "creative construction" of speech by the child cannot be ignored by the serious statement of L2 acquisition. All of our research has focused on the following question: is L2 acquisition by children characterized by the child's gradual construction of his own linguistic rules, and if so, what consequences would this have for L2 instruction?

We have begun to answer that question in the area of syntax and have limited our investigations to five- to eight-year-old children. The first step in our investigation was the theoretical analysis which integrated the surprisingly small amount of existing empirical data on the speech of children acquiring a second language (Dulay and Burt 1972). This analysis also laid out the theoretical framework for our subsequent research. In the present paper we report on two empirical studies done sequentially over the last year.

The first study, which was reported at the 1973 TESOL Convention in San Juan, was designed to provide systematic empirical data on the "habit formation" vs. "creative construction" nature of second language learning by children. The findings of that study led us to investigate further the creative construction account of L2 acquisition in a second study which asked, essentially, whether there is a natural sequence in the acquisition of certain basic syntactic structures across children in diverse L2 learning environments.

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The First Study: Habit Formation Vs. Creative Construction

Rationale

The first study was motivated primarily by the conflict between our past ESL training (which we had put into practice during our teaching careers) and what we were hearing from Chomsky and his colleagues at M.I.T. and Brown and his colleagues at Harvard. The basis of our ESL teaching techniques was the habit formation account of L2 acquisition. That is, a second language is learned by imitation, reinforcement of the correct associations between verbal responses and contextual or verbal stimuli, practice of correct responses, and immediate correction by the teacher of incorrect responses. This is quite the opposite of the creative construction point of view in L1 acquisition, which attributes to the child the mechanisms necessary to organize and generate the syntax of a language. During the learning process the child's syntax differs from the commonly "correct" or developed structures. However, the child himself gradually resolves the mismatch between his forms and the developed forms he hears, without any observable external intervention (see Cazden 1972).

We had no clear evidence for either theory of child L2 acquisition, because there were virtually no studies on how children acquired a second language (Dulay and Burt 1972). Furthermore, the pedagogical implications of each account are almost diametrically opposed. Thus, both as ESL teachers and as researchers, we designed a study that we hoped would provide firm direction for our subsequent work.

According to the habit formation theory, certain kinds of errors are predicted in the speech of children learning a second language. These errors should appear wherever the child's mother tongue and the L2 being acquired differ. They are believed to be the result of the child's transferring the structures of his L1 (his old habit) onto the structures called "interference" errors. The creative construction theory, however, predicts quite different kinds of errors. The child is "reconstructing" the new language independently of his knowledge of the structures of his first language. Thus, errors due to transfer of L1 structures onto L2 structures should not occur. Instead, the error types should be the result of the processing strategies the child uses to organize and produce the new language. These would be "developmental" errors similar to those of children learning that language natively.

The differences in both sets of predictions are relatively simple to identify. One only needs to look at the types of errors made and see if they reflect structure (see Stockwell, Bowen and Martin 1965, for a contrastive analysis of Spanish and English), or if they are similar to the developmental errors found in the published data of L1 researchers. (Brown 1973b, and Klima and Bellugi 1966, provide representative samples.)

One important distinction must be kept in mind when classifying these error types: errors must be unambiguously classifable as interference or not. For example, Spanish speaking children are often heard producing

utterances such as:

He no eat
I no wanna go

While it is true that these reflect Spanish structure *(El no come, Yo no quiero ir)*, these are also produced by children learning English as L1. Thus, they are ambiguous with respect to our question, since they support both accounts of L2 acquisition.

Procedure

Natural speech was ilicited from 145 Spanish-speaking five-to eight-year-olds, and 388 unambiguous errors from that speech sample were tabulated for this study. The children were all learning English as a second language in three school districts-two in northern California and one in New York City. All of the children's utterances were collected by their teachers using the *Bilingual Syntax Measure* (Burt, Dulay and Hernandez 1973).

The *Bilingual Syntax Measure* (BSM) is an instrument designed to measure young children's acquisition of English and/or Spanish grammatical structure in an L2 situation. The BSM consists of seven colored cartoon type pictures and a set of 33 questions in English and 33 in Spanish. The BSM has no "correct" or "best" answers in terms of the content of children's responses. It only measures the degree of proficiency with which the child uses the structures he offers in response to the questions. The questions are structured so that certain structure types will be almost unavoidable in the child's response. For example, pointing to a very fat cartoon character, the investigator asks, "Why is he so fat?" Thus, we have data on how the child forms simple finite clauses (word order, gender, number and case for the pronoun, agreement for the verb, the form of the qualifier, etc.). However, less common responses such as "He not on Weightwatcher" are coded for the structures the child offered. The aim of the BSM is to elicit natural speech from children, not specific responses, so that we can get an indication of how proficient the child is, given the structures he offers.

Error analysis and findings

We investigated errors in six elicited syntactic structure types which were different in Spanish and English. We classified the errors into three types: a) *developmental:* those errors that are similar to L1 acquisition errors; b) *interference:* those errors that reflect Spanish structure; c) *unique:* thos- errors that are neither "developmental" nor "interference," but which appeared in our sample.

For example, for the question "Why do the baby birds want food?" the most common structure type used by the children is a form of "they're hungry." If a child says "they hungry," the error (omission of the copula) would be classified as developmental, since it is also a form used by children acquiring English natively. If a child says "they have hunger/

hungry" the error (use of *have* for *be)* would be classified as an interference error since it directly reflects Spanish structure *(ellos, tienen hambre)*, and since it is not found in the data of children learning English as a first language. If a child says "they do hungry" it would be classified as unique, since the use of *do* for *be* neither reflects Spanish nor is it found in English L1 data.

Table 1 summarizes the six structure types in our data that were relevant to the study. The two necessary conditions for this analysis were met: 1) there were instances of errors, and 2) the errors could be unambiguously classified as either interference or developmental. For example, for structure 1 (NP-V-Pron), the habit formation theory would predict L1 interference: a native Spanish speaker should produce NP-Pron-V as in *The dog it ate/took/stole*, etc. because that constituent order holds in Spanish *(El perro se lo comió)*, or he may also add a reflexive marker which is obligatory in Spanish. On the other hand, the creative construction theory would predict developmental errors; the omission of the article *the*, or the omission or misformation of the past tense as in *(the) dog eat/eated it*.

The final step in the analysis was the tabulation of errors in each category. The results, summarized in Table 2, indicate that three per cent of the 388 error types fell into the interference category, and 85 per cent were developmental. The remaining 12 per cent were unique, and we leave their explanation to future research.

Implications of findings

The results of the first study show that most of the children's L2 syntax errors in English were of the type made only by children learning English natively. This suggests that children learning a second language are as creative as are their L1 counterparts. Their errors suggest that they also make use of universal language processing strategies described in L1 research. These strategies have been described for languages as diverse as English, Samoan, Japanese, Russian, Finnish, and several Mayan languages. They include the reliance upon the word order of the language being learned to express an agent-action-object relation without the use of functors-i.e., the grammatical "frills" required in the developed form *"the dog is eating the turkey"* (the tense is clear from the context). The omission of functors is soon replaced by errors caused by "over-generalization," that is, applying a regular of pervasive rule in the language to an exception, such as a the plural form *-s* in *foots* (for *feet)*, he past *-ed* in *eated* (for *ate)*, the possessive form in the reflexive pronoun *hisself* (for *himself)*.

One observable conclusion drawn from this study is that children's L2 errors in syntax are similar to those of children learning a first language. That is, they are characterized by the omission of functors and over-generalizations rather than by the incorrect use of L1 structures in L2 speech. These facts are interesting primarily because they support the hypotheses that children learning a second language use the same

TABLE 1
Error Types

Structure	Examples of Developed Form	Examples of Developmental Error	Examples of Interference Error
1. NP-V-Pron	The dog ate it	(The) dog eat it	(The) dog it ate (El perro se lo comió)
2. Det-Adj-N	the skinny man	skinny (man)	(the) man skinny (El hombre flaco)
3. Pron-(Aux)-Neg-VP	He eats too much	He eat too much	eats too much (Come demasiado)
4. Det-N-Poss-N	the king's food	(the) king food	(the) good (of the king) (La comida del rey)
5. NP-be-Adj	They are hungry	they hungry	they have hunger/hungry (Ellos tienen hambre)
6. (NP-Aux)-V+ing -(Infin)- NP-Prep-NP NP-NP	The mother is giving food to the birdie	(The) mother give food to (the) birdie	(The) mother him give food to (the) birdie (La mamá le dió le comida al pajarito)

TABLE 2
Distribution of errors

	Developmental	Interference	Unique
Structure 1	65	0	5
2	72	0	0
3	156	10	33
4	5	1	0
5	5	0	4
6	19	0	3
Total	332 (85%)	11 (3%)	45 (12%)

general language processing abilities which children use in learning their mother tongue. This means we have some evidence that the child's cognitive input to the L2 situation is necessary to account for his acquisition of syntax. Comparative error analysis has thus provided the empirical support necessary to continue exploring the productivity of the creative construction process in predicting the form of children's L2 speech. This conclusion provided the starting point for our second study.

The Second Study: Natural Sequence of L2 Structure Acquisition

Rationale

If we assume that children use common processing strategies to learn a second language, what other evidence might there be (in addition to the error analysis described above) that reveals that "commonness," or universality of process? Here again, L1 research gives us a lead. In addition to the impressive finding that children all over the world create the same types of syntactic rules to produce early utterances in their mother tongue, Brown (1973b) found that there is a common ("invariant") sequence of acquisition of at least 14 "functors"- the little function words that have at best a minor role in conveying the meaning of a sentence? noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, copulas and prepositions.[1] These were acquired in the same order by children unacquainted with each other and of different socioeconomic levels. A subsequent cross-sectional study (de-Villiers 1972) corroborated the invariant sequence of acquisition.

This finding of L1 research motivated our next question: Is there a common sequence with which children acquiring English as a second language learn certain structures?

Before describing this study and discussing its results, a note regarding the *specific* order of acquisition must be made, because we would predict a different order for L2 children from the order Brown found for

[1]The 14 functors in Brown's four-year Longitudinal study were: present progressive, *in*, *on*, plural, past irregular, possessive, uncontractible copula articles, past regular, third person regular, third person irregular, uncontractible auxiliary, contractible copula, and the contractible auxiliary.

his L1 children. After an exhaustive analysis of semantic and grammatical complexity of the functors, Brown concluded that ". . .the order of acquisition is dependent upon relative complexity, grammatical and/or semantic" (Brown 1973b). In other words, neither grammatical nor semantic complexity alone could explain the acquisition order in younger children one and one-half to four years old. However, five- to eight-year-old-children such as those we studied are more sophisticated with respect to cognitive and conceptual development. In short, the older L2 learner need not struggle with the same kinds of semantic notions already acquired in earlier childhood.

Since the variable of "semantic complexity" is absent for the elementary structures we are dealing with in L2, we would not expect those structures to be acquired in the same order as in L1. The framework for this study can thus be stated as follows: If the creative construction process is a major force in L2 acquisition, we hypothesize that, as in L1, there should be a common sequence of acquisition of certain syntactic structures across children learning a second language. However, these structures in L2 acquisition would be acquired in a different order than that found in L1 acquisition.

Procedure

In this study we again used natural speech of five-to eight-year-old Spanish-speaking children learning English as L2, collected by means of the *Bilingual Syntax Measure*. These data had been collected before our second study was conceived, in schools which had used the measure to assess children's L2 development. We decided to use those data to pilot our analysis techniques and as a preliminary test for our hypotheses. The speech corpus contained 8 of Brown's original 14 functors, including those that were acquired at the beginning, middle, and end of the L1 sequence. If one ranked Brown's 14 functors from 1 to 14, the 8 in our study were those that ranked 1 (present progressive), 4 (plural), 5 (past irregular), 6 (possessive), 8 (articles), 10 (third person regular), 13 (contractible copula), and 14 (contractible auxiliary).

The sample consisted of 151 children: 95 Chicano children from Sacramento, California; 26 Mexican children studying in San Ysidro, California, a town five minutes away from Tijuana, Mexico, where the children lived; and 30 Puerto Rican children from the East Harlem district in New York. These three groups of children differ with respect to amount of exposure to English, as well as with respect to level of proficiency in English. Most of the East Harlem children had not lived in the States more than a year and were exposed to English in school through a "balanced bilingual program: where subject matter was taught through both Spanish and English, with no formal instruction in ESL. Of the three groups, the East Harlem children had the least exposure to English. The children in San Ysidro were exposed to English only in school, as they all lived in Tijuana and returned home every afternoon after school; however, English was the sole medium of instruction in the school. The Sacramento children had the most exposure to English. Most of the children were born in the U.S. and attended a "dual model" bilingual program (one English model and one Spanish model per class). School exposure to English included both subject matter instruction in English and ESL classes.

In summary, we had three groups of children who differed in several ways, including amount and type of exposure to English, although all were exposed to substantial amounts of natural communication in English. If there is a universal sequence of acquisition of L2 structures, this order should be reflected across all three groups of children. Thus for each group, we determined the degree of acquisition of each of the eight functors mentioned, by means of the analysis described below.

Functor analysis and findings

Grammatical morphemes, or functors, are required in almost any verbal utterances consisting of more than one morpheme. For example, in the utterance "she is dancing" a mature native speaker of English would never omit the functor *-ing*, because it is obligatory that *-ing* be attached to any verb in English when expressing a present progressive action. However, as the presence or correct use of functors contributes little to communication in English, one can communicate quite adequately without them (Burt and Kiparsky 1972). Children who are learning English as L2 do exactly that, much like children who learn English natively. When a child speaks a language he is still learning, he will create *obligatory occasions* for functors in his utterances, but he may not furnish the required forms. He may omit them, as in "He like hamburgers," where the third person present indicative is missing, or he may misform them, as in "They do hungry," where something was supplied for the copula, but it wasn't quite the right "thing."

Given the notion of "obligatory occasions," one can use the natural utterances children offer, and at the same time precisely quantify the degree of functor acquisition.

> One can set an acquisition criterion not simply in terms of output but in terms of output-where required. Each obligatory context can be regarded as a kind of test item which the child passes by supplying the required morpheme or fails by supplying none or one that is not correct. This performance measure, the percentage of morphemes supplied in obligatory contexts, should not be dependent on the topic of conversation or the character of the interaction. (Brown 1973b:225)

Thus, treating each obligatory occasion for a functor as a "test item," we scored each item as follows:

no functor supplied	= 0	(she's dance_)
misformed functor supplied	= 0.5	(she's dances)
correct functor supplied	= 1.0	(she's dan*cing*)

The degree to which a functor had been acquired in each of our three groups of children was completed by means of a ratio for each functor, where the denominator indicated the total number of obligatory occasions for that functor across all children in the group, and the numerator was the sum of the scores obtained for each obligatory occasion.

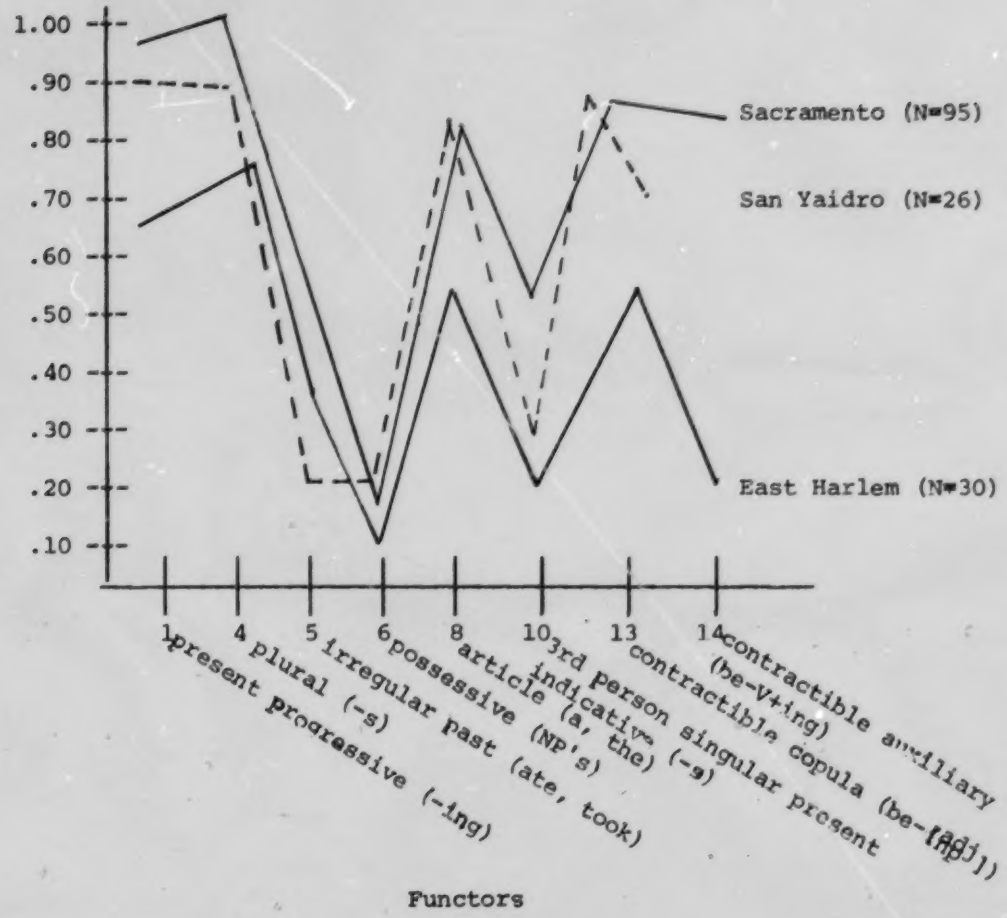

Figure 1. Acquisition of eight English functors by native Spanish-speaking children.

This computational procedure was followed for each functor and for each group of children. The results appear in Figure 1. As the figure indicates, the contours for the acquisition of our eight functors are similar for each of the three groups, even though the degree of acquisition of those functors differs somewhat for each group. It is also clear that the order of acquisition of these functors is different from that found in L1 acquisition. The functors specified on the horizontal axis appear in the order in which they were acquired in L1. If we charted out the L1 order, then, the line would be roughly diagonal, starting at the top left and ending in the lower right-hand corner.

It is important to point out that these contours should not be the result of Spanish interference (even though all the children were Spanish-speaking), as the results of the first study show that only three per cent of the errors children made fell into the interference category.

Thus, at this point in our research, both of our hypotheses received support: 1) there does seem to be a common order of acquisition for certain structures in L2 acquisition, at least for our three groups of children, and 2) the order is different from that found in L1 acquisition. Thus this pilot study supplies independent and additional evidence of the creative construction process in L2 acquisition.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The first study indicates that most of the syntactic errors Spanish-speaking children make in English are the result of the developmental linguistic rules children construct to generate the language, rather than the result of first language habits. (This finding is supported by studies on Japanese (Milon 1972), Chinese (Huang 1972) and Norwegian children (Ravem 1970) learning English as a second language.) The construction of those rules is said to be creative because no native speaker of the target language-whether peer, parent, or teacher-models the kind of sentences produced regularly by children who are still learning the basic syntactic structures of the language.

In the second study, the common sequence of acquisition of certain grammatical morphemes by three groups of children in diverse English learning environments provides independent evidence that the strategies of second language acquisition by children are universal. Furthermore, this common sequence indicates that the learning order to these structures is controlled by the child's processing strategies, in the sense that he must be cognitively "ready" in order to acquire any one of them.

To date, no one has found a way to accelerate the child's progress through the steps in the acquisition of syntax, however, work in this area is just beginning. At this point, our knowledge of the language acquisition process tells us that exposing the child to a natural communication situation is sufficient to activate his language learning processes. If we accept this, the next question arises: What are the crucial characteristics of a natural communication situation for L2 learning?

Perhaps the most important characteristic of a natural communication situation that is most often overlooked in language classrooms is that the attention of the speaker and hearer is on the "message," or content, of the verbal exchange rather than on its form. Yet, most language teaching materials focus on the structures to be taught, often with the result that the message of the sentences taught, if there is one, is meaningless for both teachers and children. This may be because language teachers are supposed to teach language and not anything else, just as social studies teachers or science teachers are supposed to teach social studies or science. Though this analogy sounds reasonable enough, the fallacy lies in comparing language, which is "form," to subject matter, which is "content." Thus to the extent that form replaces content, language classes are not natural communication situations.

Another important characteristic of a natural communication situation that is conductive to language learning is the presence of clear and concrete referents for the major meaning-bearing elements of the verbal expressions.

That is, as much as possible, all the nouns, verbs and adjectives in the teacher's utterances to the child should be at least visually accessible to the child as he hears the teacher speaking. In other words, the more props there are in the classroom that represent the objects used in the activity, the more easily the child will be able to infer the "message" from the form," i.e., the teacher's actual speech. For example, elementary science kits are one of the best kinds of materials for L2 learning. A child who doesn't understand and retain interest in what is going on before his eyes (message). And in the magical manner of language acquisition, the child will process and begin to produce the speech that he hears.

Thus, in answer to the question "Should we teach children syntax?" the available research indicates, "No." Although we believe that an L2 teacher should continue to *diagnose* children's L2 syntax, our findings suggest that we should leave the learning to the children and redirect our teaching efforts to other aspects of language.

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COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING: A DISCUSSION AND SOME QUESTIONS

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Community Language Learning (CLL) is a relatively new, humanistically-oriented approach to language teaching and learning. Both Charles Curran (1972, 1976) its prime architect, and Paul LaForge (1975) and Abraham Maslow (1962). Their fundamental view of man is humanistic, emphasizing that man is unique, not simply a higher-order animal. Man is also functionally unified; he acts and reacts to experience as a whole being. Therefore, learning involves both cognitive and personality aspects of man's nature and both are continuously involved in the process of learning.

Applying these assumptions to second language learning, the humanists suggest that since it is a "unified" man who acquires language, both aspects of man's psyche are actively involved in the process. Attention has traditionally been given to the cognitive learning of patterns of syntax and phonology, but the humanists ask what is happening concomitantly in the emotional area? Have we neglected something which may have an enormous impact on the learning process? Curran and LaForge would most certainly answer in the affirmative.

Great differences in progress in second language learning have been observed in individuals, regardless of IQ level, and regardless of second language methods or techniques employed (Stevick, 1973). And children have been observed to learn a second language with amazing speed and consistency

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over a wide range of IQ scores. Curran and LaForge suggest explanations for these facts from a humanistic perspective.

Curran theorizes that children can learn languages easily because they don't become anxious or defensive when confronted with their own ignorance. Since pre-adolescents, in varying degrees, lack a clearly differentiated and fixed image of their intellectual and emotional qualities and capacities, they don't feel the need for self-deferse nor sense a fear of exposing their lack of knowledge.

Conversely, in post-adolescents, Curran explains that three types of conflicts must be resolved in learning a language: 1) anxiety; 2) hostility; and 3) dependency. The anxiety is said to come from the learner having to expose his ignorance and weakness in relation to the new language. This results in hostility toward anyone who is knowledgeable in the language to be learned, i.e., the native speaker and/or the teacher ("knower" and "counselor"). Finally, there are internal conflicts over the dependency relationship set up in order to actually learn another language. These conflicts or "emotional problems" are held to be capable of effectively blocking progress in learning a language if they are not taken into consideration at the beginning of study and gradually resolved during the course. In Curran's words: "...states and feelings such as hostility, anxiety, and conflict...if not finally consciously understood and controlled, can be self-defeating and so seriously impede or block the learning pursuit." (Curran, 1976, 2).

According to Curran and LaForge, effective teaching must take into account both the cognitive and emotional aspects of man's nature. Since language and communication are essentially social phenomena, it is in this context that language can most effectively be learned, not through the

traditional emphasis on the individual as a learner apart from a group. Drawing again on the assumptions of humanism, it is held that all people are basically equal and responsible, so a democratic classroom arrangement would be fitting. In such an arrangement the teacher is perceived as being an equal to the students but possessing a knowledge which the learners lack. In this setting the teacher's role is that of a counselor/resource person rather than a superior authority figure. Learners of "clients" are seen as responsible individuals who create their own learning situations collectively, actively drawing upon the unique knowledge of the teacher or knower. Resolution of the three conflicts stated earlier must precede or accompany smooth progress in post-adolescent years.

This democratic, "student-centered" approach to teaching is contrasted to the traditional behavioristic learning model which is said to be artificial. The latter is artificial since the teacher and/or textbook author are determining the type and context of the learning experience, which are likely to be alien to the learners. The structural-behavioral approach is also accused of being partial in its scope, catering only to cognitive aspects of language learning. In addition, such an approach puts all the responsibility for learning on the teacher, not the learner. The conditioning methods of behaviorism are rejected as well, since they haven't been proven effective in language learning and the theory underlying such activities has been severely criticized. Chomsky (1966), Hornby (1950), and others are cited by LeForge (1975) in support of the rejection of behavioristic teaching models.

Fur Curran and LaForge, the key to language learning lies in overcoming the three conflicts, and the key to overcoming the conflicts is in the

accepting attitude of the teacher/knower toward the relative imperfection of the learners. This is said to reduce the defensiveness caused by the learner's feelings of ignorance, thereby opening the channels of learning. Another crucial factor in learning is what is called the "common-task orientation" which the group of learners come to sense, leading them to a cooperative attitude in learning, the essence of democratic, and ultimately humanistic education.

From the preceding, one might well expect rather novel teaching/learning techniques. Naturally there need be no textbooks nor any of the traditional paraphernalia used in the classroom. In learning a new language, the learner proceeds through a series of "states of growth" corresponding to five psychological stages. Each stage is attained at the learner's own rate, and is described in terms of the type of interaction the individual is engaging in at that point.

For brevity, we might use symbols to illustrate the type of interaction at the various psychological stages:

Stage 1: CL---(L1)--CO, CO----(L2)-- CL, CL----(L2)--GR
(embryonic) Where CL = Client/Learner; CO = Counselor/Teacher; GR = Class Group; and L1 & L2 = the learner's first & second languages.

Stage 2: CL---(L2, CO assists)--GR
(self-assertion)

Stage 3: CL---(L2, CO corrects)-- GR

Stage 4: CL---(L2, CO minimally corrects)-- GR
(reversal)

Stage 5: CL---(L2, CO embellishes)-- GR
(independent)

The stages from earlier to later involve progressively more complex structures. A lower counselor/learner ratio is also necessary in the beginning stages (i.e., as close to 1:1 as possible). The Counselor(s) may

be either physically present in the room sitting behind his client/ learners, or they may monitor and assist the learner(s) via intercom from another room. In addition, within any one class group, the individual learners may be at different stages of proficiency. This suggests that a good deal of interlearner teaching ("horizontal interaction") will take place during class sessions.

Daily sessions of CLL classes consist of two distinct types of activity: the "Direct Experience," and the "Reflective Experience."

Half of the class time is used for direct interaction in L2, the direct experience. The counselor is seated among the students and exerts minimal control of the activities so as not to deprive the learners of their responsibility in the learning process. The students select their own topics and determine how they will be discussed, including the types of media to be used. Only when a decision has to be made regarding the meaningfulness of the learning activity does the counselor impose himself on the group. He does this in the form of shifting the discussion group size from large (i.e., a whole class discussion) to small (i.e., multiple groups of from 5-10 persons each). The group size shifting is done to vary the emotional pitch or sensation for the learners. In other words, in the large groups, the learners will feel more tense, since many persons will be listening to and scrutinizing each individual when he speaks. On the other hand, in small groups, the learner can relax since the number of listeners is greatly reduced. Outside of shifting class size and assisting lower-stage learners, the counselor facilitates the learning process by recording the class discussions and writing out transcripts (called "digests") to be used not only as feedback devices on oral production, but also as a means of enabling the learners to work with reading and writing skills

during the next session.

Five types of direct experience activities are suggested by LaForge (1975). These are usually used as preparation for the activities discussed above (especially when learner shyness is a problem): self-introductions; group questions and answers; relating experiences; ractions and explanations, and finally - free conversation. One example of a free conversation activity is called the "Face-Face Group" in which two parallel rows of learners sit opposite each other at a long table. The one-to-one conversations which ensue are cut off every three minutes when one row of students moves one place. This allows everyone in the class to speak to other members. These activities are intended to gradually build learner confidence and courage to speak out -- so necessary to progress in oral proficiency. Trials by LaForge indicated that students liked the idea of speaking with every member of the class, and soon saw the short face-to-face conversations as valuable learning experiences.

The other half of the class time is used to discuss, (in either L1 or L2) learner reactions and problems encountered in the direct experience, to make written notes in the L2 evaluating the day's progress, and to express hopes for subsequent discussions. The counselor plays a much more active role in this period--seeking out student feelings, reflecting sentiments back to the group for discussion, requesting group members to read their comments aloud, or discussion, requesting group members to read their comments aloud, or discussing "digests" from the previous day's discussion. Each day, conclusions are drawn at the end of the reflective period concerning the language being studies - sometimes reconfirming, modifying or rejecting those made previously. In Curran's terminology this is "Consensual Validation Research"; it is viewed by LaForge with much optimism as a new research methodology.

During this reflective period the more silent learners are reminded by the more active ones of their passivity. It is suggested that they are not taking advantage of their learning opportunity, nor respecting what is called the "psychological contract" accepted at the beginning of the course. This contract is an agreement on basic issues such as working to learn the new language. Since using the native language is considered to be inevitable even in early learning stages, the counselor challenges the learners to raise their percentage of L2 usage.

Although the procedures utilized in Community Language Learning may sound intuitively appealing, there have been no studies conducted which compare the CLL approach with a control group taught utilizing another method or approach. The results Curran and LaForge speak of are based on anecdotal observation of the method in use, and their feelings about its relative merits.

Four separate uses of CLL were described by LaForge (1975). There were groups of: 1) adult English speakers learning French in the United States; 2) English-speaking college students learning Indonesian, Japanese, and Chinese; 3) adult Spanish speakers (in the United States) learning English; and 4) Japanese High School students learning English (in Japan).

In general, LaForge felt quite convinced of the effectiveness of the CLL approach, not only in bringing about fluency in the target language, but also in revealing and resolving psychological and social problems related to language learning. He suggests that individual motivation to learn increased greatly as a result of the focus on group responsibility and involvement, the "common-task orientation." The learner's desire to identify with the counselor/teacher was also found to increase motivation and language learning. One example of an attitudinal change which took

place with the Japanese students was a gradual change in their value continuum from a "pleasant-unpleasant" one to a "good-for-my-English-advancement--bad-for-my-English advancement" continuum of values. This resulted according to LaForge from the psychological contract which "kept the focus of the whole group unified on the goal, the mastery of English" (121).

Traditional methods of evaluating approaches to language teaching would be only minimally useful for an analysis of this type of program, since they are generally aimed at textbook-based courses and what LaForge calls the "cognitive" aspects of language acquisition. Nevertheless, the criteria for effective language teaching materials proposed by Stevick (1971) might prove interesting when applied to the CLL approach. Stevick's criteria are as follows:

1. Usability CLL should get an "A" in this one since the use of language is by its very nature "real." The language in the classroom consists of the productions of the learners themselves at all points and in all situations. The language content is also completely "spontaneous," in Stevick's words.

2. Organization This aspect assumes a teacher-imposed approach to learning - inimical to CLL. However, in its daily sessions, there is quite effective order in CLL classroom procedures, noted earlier.

3. Responsiveness "Relevance" again is intrinsic to the student-centered CLL approach.

4. Responsibility Here is another "A" for CLL. The students have almost complete control over the content and means to learning. Increasing self-sufficiency is also basic to Curran's model of learning.

5. Pluralism Diversity is the name of the game. Everyone is free to pursue language competence at his own rate and in his own way (internally).

Although CLL comes off fairly well using Stevick's criteria, they miss the main thrust of the Curran/LaForge approach.

There are several unanswered questions which come to mind as one is reading about CLL. An important one is: How is individual progress to be assessed? No mention was made as to how progress in language proficiency was or might be measured. If, as they claim, language competence advances together with personality development, could a test such as the California Psychological Inventory, a standardized test purporting to measure emotional maturity, be used to assess gains of learners in a CLL course? We may even ask here if character development can be said to be related to language learning. Certainly it's worth investigating.

The second major question which comes to mind is: What kind of person must the teacher/counselor be? This is likely to be a common question asked of the approach. Would the CLL teacher have to be fully qualified in psychology, linguistics, and pedagogy to be effective? Can the qualities necessary for being a CLL counselor be taught at all? Or should certification be based on emotional maturity as measured by some standardized test such as the one mentioned above? Furthermore, how many of these people would be required for the operation of a beginning CLL class? These questions weren't answered by Curran or LaForge. Indeed, LaForge (1975) notes that "the ordinary English teacher might find the problems connected with CLL activities rather complex" (110). Certainly this question needs to be faced before the approach can be widely implemented.

Thirdly, if left to their own devices, as in CLL, can students learn a language as efficiently as with the traditional teacher-directed-and-constructed situation? There are advantages to a deductive approach which has received renewed support from Chomsky in recent years. Perhaps definitive comparative research will be able to determine this for us.

LaForge's text also contains a number of empirically untouchable statements, such as the suggestion that the "reflective period" may produce a Maslowian "peak experience." (Maslow, 1972). Finally, one might quess that the "shyness" LaForge suggests that CLL was trying to combat was more a product of the situation than an ingrained personality trait in the learners. This would render the combat an artificial battle since in a slightly different situational set-up the same learners might fail to display any timidity.

If research is able to demonstrate a major role for emotional factors in second language learning, Curran and LaForge will have been among those instrumental in arousing interest in the question. Furthermore, the approach may well offer psychological as well as linguistic benefits for the individual. For however difficult it is with present measures to assess personality gains, e.g., those of attitudes, values, and coping techniques, this doesn't detract from the potential value of considering them in a program of study. After all, an important often-professed objective of schools is the socialization of the individual, not simply the dispensing of knowledge.

It appears that Curran and LaForge's novel, humanistically-oriented approach to language teaching and learning is not incompatible with aspects of either an audio-lingual or a transformation-cognitive approach. By introducing the personality as a most significant element in the whole

process, perhaps CLL takes us one step closer to an all-inclusive and ultimately "real" conception of that most complex and dynamic human act called learning. But the real test of that view lies in future comparative research. In the meantime, perhaps a broader eclecticism, encompassing the most effective and compatible features of all three approaches will best serve learners of a second language.

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REVIEW ARTICLE

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TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SCHOOLS: THE SILENT WAY. Second Edition. Caleb Gattegno. New York: Educational Solutions, Inc. 1972. pp. xiv, 144.

SOME BASIC FACTS ABOUT "THE SILENT WAY"

This is another book by an outsider.[1] Like Curran (1972, reviewed in Stevick 1973), Caleb Gattegno does language teaching as a by-product and special case of a professional commitment which is broader than language teaching as such. Again like Curran, Gattegno makes almost no mention of those who are conspicuous in the field; in turn, his own published works are cited only rarely in our books and journals. The first edition of this book received no serious reviews in the United States, and as far as I am aware, the second edition has thus far been entirely ignored.

It is not hard to understand how this has happened. I myself found the first chapter of the first edition so annoying that I refused to read further. I find the second edition exciting and utterly charming from cover to cover, but this fact is probably due less to the differences between the editions than it is to five intervening years of hit and run - or hit and miss - encounters with the Silent Way in practice. This review, therefore, while centering on the book, will necessarily reflect my total experience with what strikes many of us as a bizarre way of learning and teaching.

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[1]This review has been written in the midst of ongoing work with the Silent Way. I would like to thank Souad Demiray, Saynur Goren and Gusin Metya, language instructors who have cooperated in this work; and Evalyn Bauer, Emily Drake, Patrick and Susan Hayes, and Kevin Homan, who have checked the credibility of my statements from their own experiences as learners. Carol and Bobuo Akiyama, Virginia Hodge, Elain Rhymers and Panagiotis Sapountzis have also read the manuscript and made helpful suggestions. Full responsibility for errors of fact and interpratation remains of course with me.

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My first view of the Silent Way was in a brief demonstration, which I found good but not memorable. I did not begin to take it seriously until a year later, when I watched an actual Spanish class in its seventh hour of instruction. That session was one of the most impressive I had ever seen, for the amount of language that the students controlled, but also for the variety and intensity of the personal energies that were released. A year after that, I attended a two-day seminar on the Silent Way. From that time on, although I was by no means "sold" on the method, I began to pass bits of it on to teachers with whom I worked in various parts of the world. The responses of these teachers and their students, even to these second-hand fragments, were so good that I gradually came to reexamine my own thinking. Meantime, I saw a number of demonstrations-some of them outstanding - by other people. I have seen the method used brilliantly in a class of one person, and in a class of 70. Most recently, working in partnership with Turkish instructors who had had no previous experience with the Silent Way, I took a beginning class through their first 150 hours, using little except rods and purposive silence. This, then, is a summary of the background out of which I write this review.

Gattegno's commitment is to solving some of the problems of learning in general; teaching foreign languages is for him only one special case of broader principles which he has also applied in teaching mathematics, and the reading and writing of the mother tongue. Accordingly, his first chapter sets forth some of those ideas. The five that to me seem most important, both for understanding this book and for the illumination of any style of teaching, are the following:

1. *Teaching should be subordinated to learning*(1).
2. *Learning is not primarily imitation or drill* (3). This, a key tenet

of post-audiolingual methodologists, was present in the 1963 edition, at a time when audiolingual orthodoxy was at its height. In this respect, Gattegno's thinking runs parallel to that of Curran (1968:344ff.), who sees learning in relation to the total and changing value-structure of the learner. Drill is valuable, he says, only insofar as it is substantially tied in with the personality of the learner. As we shall see below, the Silent Way gives primary attention to the social forces at work in the class.

3. *In learning, rather, the mind "equips itself* by its own working, trial and error, deliberate experimentation, by suspending judgment and revising conclusions." (4) Here, a year before *Games People Play*, is an almost verbatim description of the "Adult" ego-state (Berne 1964:24 et passim, Harris 1967:50ff.) together with an affirmation of the importance of this ego-state in the learning process.

4. *As it works, the mind draws on* everything it has already acquired, particularly including *its experience of learning its native language* (12). For Gattegno, therefore, the differences between first- and second-language learning loom larger than the similarities, so that he is content to devise an "artificial" method (12), rather than trying for a "natural" one.

5. If the teacher's activity is to be subordinate to that of the learner, and if the learner's activity is to be of the kind described under Point 3 (above), then *the teacher must stop interfering with and sidetracking that activity* (13). Here is the principal reason for the silence which gives this way of teaching its name. At the same time, this frankly artificial approach is in some respects very strictly controlled (12). The teacher provides knowledge of the language, and a firm overall structure for activity. In so doing, he meets a part of the student's deep need for security

(Maslow 1970:39), and fulfills the role of a Nurturing, or Natural Parent (Berne 1972:13,118). At the same time, however, he avoids the constant modeling, prescribing and directing kinds of activity which are typical of the Controlling Parent (*ibid.*), and which many teachers seem to believe are inseparable from effective, responsible teaching. But this allegation on my part calls for a description of how the Silent Way is used.

Anyone who has ever heard of the Silent Way at all knows that it makes use of a set of "rods," which are small wooden blocks of ten different lengths but identical cross-section, each length having its own distinctive color. In addition, a fully developed set of materials contains a word chart, a phonic chart in which phonemic distinctions appear as contrasting colors, drawings, worksheets, and several books (15).

With regard to the linguistic units themselves, the basic strategy of the Silent Way agrees with many other methods of the past 30 years, by concentrating first on the acquisition, within a small vocabulary, of control over pronunciation and the structural elements (Fries 1947:3). Chapter 3, which many readers will see as the central chapter, is titled "Much Language and Little Vocabulary."

THE FIRST LESSONS

In a typical first lesson, the vocabulary begins with "a rod" and goes on to such expressions as "a blue rod," etc., ending with the imperative form "take ..." The teacher pronounces each new input very clearly. Ideally, a new input should be given only once, but in any event the students get only what they absolutely require. From the very first minute, the students do 90% or more of the talking, while the teacher remains almost completely silent. At all times, speech is accompanied by appropriate action (generally consisting of manipulation of the rods), and appropriate

action is accompanied by appropriate speech. The method thus has one of the characteristics which the "Total Physical Response" experiments showed to be so desirable for establishing durable comprehension (Kunihara and Asher 1965, Asher 1974). But this first lesson has two additional strong points which are seldom found elsewhere.

The first of these points is related to what we are discovering in research on short-term memory. According to one widely accepted view (e.g., Mayor 1969:1165, Nelson 1971:565, Norman 1970:2; for a recent alternative interpretation see Craik 1973), new auditory material is retained for about 20 seconds in a state in which it is available for inspection and even rehearsing, something like a loop of tape, or like a small worktable on which bits of new and old material may be assembled, sorted and rearranged. This is the reason why human beings are able to "do a double take" in response to something they heard a few seconds earlier. But if further new auditory material is introduced into short-term memory before the first material has faded from it, the later material will interfere with the person's ability to process and assimilate the earlier. Silence, on the other hand, gives the mind maximum opportunity to extract information from a short bit of aural input. In most of our methods, the barrage of utterances from teacher and fellow students is like a handful of stones thrown into the surface of a quiet pond: we are unable to follow the ripples from any one of them because of interference produced by the others.

It is for this reason that, in my own attempts to use the Silent Way, I have learned to forbid *any* immediate repetition of new material spoken by the teacher. The enforced silence that surrounds the new words both allows and compels maximum attention and superior processing. The first individual or group production of this material comes about three seconds later (well

within the span of short-term memory), in response to a fresh presentation of the visual stimulus. If one student does not get it right, he is given more time and sone non-verbal help. If he still does not get it, others are silently invited to try, and the best version is indicated by the teacher - again silently. Then (in a small class) the rest of the students may produce the utterance, each in response to a fresh stimulus.

This use of silence means that the student derives much more benefit per audible model from the teacher. It might still be argued that even if, in comparison to other, noisier ways of teaching the student absorbs 10 times as much *per model* from the teacher, the noisier ways still produce a greater effect in the long run if they provide 50, or 25, or even just 11 times as many models:

If L (earning) = N(umber of Models) x B(benefit per Model)

$$B_S = 10\ B_C$$

$$N_S = \frac{N_C}{X}$$

Then L_C is greater than L_S if X is greater than 10. I find, however, that this argument leads to a conclusion that does not square with my observations. The reason, apparently, is found in a fundamental difference between two ways of looking at the mind of the student. In one view, it is a clay tablet on which lines are engraved by patiently scraping a cutting tool over the same line until the desired depth is reached. In that view, the silence of the Silent Way has the effect of softening the clay so that fewer reiterations are necessary. Gattegno's view, as we have already seen, is quite different. He sees the mind as an active agent, capable of constructing and refining its own "inner criteria." In the former view, "whenever a student makes a mistake he is practicing a mistake" (the cutting

tool is being drawn over the wrong part of the tablet), and "practice of any form makes that form more likely to be used in the future." Therefore, we must insist on "accuracy before fluency." These of course are dogmas of a comparatively unenlightened version of behaviorally-oriented audiolingualism, so much maligned of late. By contrast, Gattegno tells us that "to require perfection at once is the great imperfection of most teaching." Teacher and student alike must be "shaken loose a bit from their timed perfectionism" (Levertov 1970:167) if anything creative is to take place.

The concept of "inner criteria" (14, 28) finds a close parallel in Titone's discussion of "linguistic feeling" (1970:60). Titone also seems in general accord with Gattegno on the route that leads to this kind of mastery: through incorporation of basic patterns, followed by inference of the basic rules through observation and deduction, rather that through mere grammatical theory.

Gattegno's view of the mind places him very clearly in what today we may call the cognitivist camp. (It is interesting to remember that he occupied this position in 1963 and, in fact, much earlier.) Indeed, both in his theory and in his practice, he places much greater faith in the mental powers of even the ordinary student than does any other cognitively-oriented system with which I am familiar. As one colleague put it after 28 hours of a beginning course, "This was a little hard at first but then it became easier as I learned to use my mind in ways that I had forgotten were available to me." Or, in Gattegno's words (25), language learning may become "a recovery of the innocence of our self, a return to our full powers and our full potentials."

This leads to the second of the two strong points that I mentioned above: the resources which the Silent Way makes available for helping

wholesome things to happen inside, and between, the people in a classroom. Compared to this, teaching with rods and a minimum number of repetitions is merely an interesting tour de force, and the efficient use of the power of short-term memory is superficial. The student who was relearning to use her mind in ways that she had forgotten was growing in self-awareness; a student who can say "I have learned" rather than "I have been skillfully taught"is developing self-respect. Words written by a poet teaching poetry describe also the aim and effect of the Silent Way: "My hope was not to teach anybody ... but to attempt to bring each one to a clearer sense of what his own voice and range might be, and to give him some standards by which to evaluate his own work." (Levertov 1970:147).

The interpersonal implications begin to show themselves already in the first few lessons, in at least two ways. I have a 20-minute demonstration of the method - or a least of my best understanding of it - which I have used with numerous audiences. During that period, I open my mouth only seven times. After each of these inputs, I shape the learners' production by a process of selective reinforcement, with results that are at least as good as what gets through massive "mimicry"-memorization. At the end of the demonstration, the learners are producing, without prompting, any of nine simple three-word phrases. I then stop and ask an open-ended question: "What happened?"

One of the most frequent answers, and frequently one of the first, is "We learned how much we could depend on ourselves and on each other," or "We felt that we were working together as a group in relation to you." Nor is this reaction confined to the first few minutes. I recently interviewed a class that had completed about 180 hours of instruction, most of it by our best approximation of the Silent Way. One of the things that these students

said first and most firmly was that the method offers exceptional opportunities for them to help and be helped by each other, and that they place great value on that aspect of it.

Even the fact that the imperative "take" appears in the first lesson is helpful for intragroup relationships. Using this form, the students are able to interact directly with one another, with visible and verifiable *but nonverbal* responses. The language that one student chooses to use does not force his fellow students to produce further language if they are not ready to.

Another feature that regularly receives comment, both in the early stages and later on, is that the students' attention simply does not wander even after six or more hours a day. Still another is the absence of destructive competition: when the students are depending on one another, the unique contributions of each are clearly recognized and valued by all, for even the slower students will from time to time remember something or figure something out that has escaped the others.

These, then, have been some of the respects in which the Silent Way has rich possibilities from a psychodynamic point of view.

But as with any other method, students come up sometimes with a right answer and sometimes with a wrong one. What then? In the case of a correct response, the answer to this question is simple but unorthodox: the student must learn to do without the overt approval of the teacher. Instead, he must concentrate on developing and then satisfying his own "inner criteria." This means that the teacher is supposed to react never verbally and very little nonverbally to a correct response. There is none of the "very good!" or the enthusiastically nodding head that many authorities tell us we should produce on these occasions. Indeed, some practitioners whom I

have observed come across as stern and almost gruff. Others seem to manage a "warm, sympathetic and understanding" style without giving explicit approval to right answers. (I suspect that the desirable compromise is to show pleasure as a person rather than approval as a judge.) From the Transactional point of view, teachers may thus reduce the parental component of their behavior (Berne 1972:104). In so doing, they presumably evoke less of the Adapted Child in the student (Berne 1972:104), and therefore clear the way for the flourishing of an Adult-Adult relationship.

What is usually called a "mistake" seems to have unusual significance for the silent teacher. The student who made the mistake has "stuck his neck out," acting vicariously for the whole group. The content of the mistake itself is an invaluable clue to where the students are in the development of their "inner criteria," and so provides precious guidance for the teacher's next step. There are many ways in which the teacher may respond. Choice among these ways, in Gattegno's view as I understand it, should conform to two principles: (1) Remain silent if at all possible. (2) Give only as much help as absolutely necessary. In the early stages, use of hand signals, colors, etc. may form an elaborate and detailed system for locating places where the inner criteria need further work, or even for indicating what the desired response is. These devices still have the advantages of requiring/permitting the student to provide the answer on at least the auditory level, and of keeping all students' auditory short-term memories uncluttered. But if the teacher continues this sort of help beyond the time when it has become superfluous, he is interfering again, and students will grow restless as they feel their "learner space" invaded (Curran 1972:91).

Although silence on the part of the students is not a goal of the Silent Way, a certain amoung of it may occur under these circumstances.

La Forge (1971:57) found the silences of Community Language Learning (a system quite different from the Silent Way) to be periods of intense and valuable mental activity. Levertov (1970:175) recognized that toleration for silence when it does occur may be at the same time both a result and an expression of confidence in oneself and in the other members of the group. Of quite specific relevance to the uses of silence is a recent report of research on one facet of verbal memory.

In experiments reported by Buschke (1974), subjects were required to learn lists of 20 nouns. They were then asked to recall as many words as they could, in any order. They were allowed to try each list as many times as necessary. Before each trial, they were re-exposed *only* to those words which they had not yet recalled on their own during some previous trial. At each trial, unlike many of the other list-learning experiments that have been reported, the subjects were encouraged to take their time, and to continue trying past the point where recall became difficult.

Four of the observations that came out of the experiment were the following: (1) Most of the items that failed to be recalled on some one trial "were retrieved later without any further presentation, indicating that such failures represent retrieval failure rather than loss from storage" (579). (2) "Once an item was spontaneously recalled after previous recall failure, it usually was consistently recalled thereafter"(580). (3) The fact that it is possible to retrieve additional items by extended recall is something that must be *learned* (581). (4) "Subjects in the experiment reacted positively to the challenge of achieving their own maximum retrieval without further presentation" (581).

"Teach, Then Test ..."

One of the rules of thumb that we hear from time to time is "teach, then test." I suppose that a fair paraphrase of this formula would be something like "present a piece of new material clearly, so that the student can develop the appropriate 'competence' to match it; then go on to some kind of activity that will enable the student to demonstrate that the new competence has become available as a basis for 'performance'," This rule may have some value as a reminder not to omit either the "teaching" or the "testing" function, and not to confuse them, but it is also subject to a pernicious distortion. That distortion arises when the rule is taken to mean "teach, then test, then teach some more, then test some more, and so on until the end of the course." It is pernicious because it encourages the teacher to monopolize the initiative in the classroom. A more wholesome rule would be "teach, then test, then get out of the way." Once the student, through his performance, has demonstrated that he has the desired new competence, he needs to be able to practice it under conditions that allow him to exercise as wide as range of choices as is consistent with maintaining orderly progress.

One of the advantages of the Silent Way, it seems to me, is that it lends itself exceptionally well to keeping these three kinds of activity separate from one another: when the teacher is both making the noises and moving the rods, he is "teaching," when he is moving the rods and expecting the students to make the noises, he is "testing"; when he leaves both the rods and the noises up to the students, he is "out of the way." Furthermore, in the Silent Way, the teacher spends much less of the time in the "teaching" mode than in other methods that I have seen.

There still remain, of course, questions of how and how long to test, and how long to stay out of the way. A final advantage of the Silent Way is that, not being required to keep the classroom filled at all times with audible language, the teacher has more opportunity to observe the students' performance and modify his own actions accordingly - what Gattegno calls being "with" the students.

SOME GENERAL QUESTIONS

I will not in this review describe the rest of the Silent Way in as much detail as the first lessons, partly because of limitations on my personal experience with it. I also believe, however, that the first lessons contain those features of the method which are at the same time crucial, and most characteristic of it. But there remain two frequently-asked questions which demand attention here.

1. *Isn't the value of the Silent Way largely confined to the early stages, for teaching numbers, colors, spatial relations, and a few things like that?* Having taken one class successfully to 150 hours primarily by my best approximation of this method, I can only reply in the negative. This must certainly be the answer if we think of the Silent Way as a way of looking at teaching and learning, rather than as a set of operations with rods. But even from the latter point of view, the answer is still "no." In fact, numbers and colors are in my opinion among the least interesting uses of the rods, because for these purposes the rods are most easily replaceable by other devices. This brings us to the second question.

2. *How essential are the rods, really?* For years, I was skeptical on this point, preferring to use toy villages, or Tinkertoys, or real objects, and actively refusing to have anything to do with rods. I now

prefer rods to Tinkertoys because they are more visible, less distracting, come in more colors, and do not roll off the table.

My reasons for preferring rods to toy houses and cars are more important. (1) The representational objects tell the beholder what *kind* of house, school, etc. to see: they pre-empt the functioning of imagination, which is one part of the total personality that we are trying to activiate. (2) It is hard for representational objects to become what they are not. Rods, by contrast, have unbounded flexibility. The same rods may become, now a map of the Middle East, now a picture of a traffic accident, now a graphic analog of the surface structure of the Turkish noun, now a visible record of information that a student is giving about the neighborhood in which he lives. At the more advanced levels, students seem to appreciate the shared concrete record of what they are talking about. As Maria del Carmen Gagliardo says in one of the appendices to the book, the rods are both "austere" and "mesmerizing" (132).

CONCLUSION

This book has inescapable personal flavor about it. I think it would not be improper to make two observations in this regard.

One quality that comes across on many pages is the author's humility and sense of humor. He recognizes that his experiements have been limited in scope (2), and that his conclusions "may not be universally valid"(43). He has a quiet chuckle at his own expense in citing ways in which he exemplifies his observation that "strange uses of the language are common among learners who choose to be at peace within themselves rather than bow to the traditions of the foreign language" (24).

But along with this humility - perhaps growing out of it - we find an unbending loyalty to whatever light the author has been able to find (xi).

He has been granted to see parts of the truth that noone else had seen before him (vii). He refuses to dilute or alter the distillate of his experience in order to make it more palatable to others. He believes that, at best, all that he can hope to educate in us his colleagues is our awareness (x). Both in his method and in this book about the method, he is consistent with his principle of maintaining the integrity of what is to be taught and at the same time enhancing the integrity of the learners (52). It is as though he is saying to us "Once you have understood this for yourself, you will have no further need of me. And if I tried to give you a clue at the cost of your own experience, I would be the worst of teachers." (Herrigel 1971:76). Again in conformity with this principle, he withdraws the promise, made in the first edition, to provide a Teachers Manual.

This review has been a frankly favorable one. I do not, however, intend it as a blanket endorsement either of the book or of the method which it describes. Some few parts of the book are open to serious question from the point of view of standard linguistic science. More important, it is frequently tantalizing in the questions it raises or in the partial answers it gives. As for the Silent Way itself, I have not seen enough of it in action to regard it as the one methodological pearl of great price; it is, however, possibly the most undervalued pearl on the market today.

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NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM: A FRILL OR A MUST?

Carmen Judith Nine-Curt*

It is indeed a great pleasure to be here at this time of the year, and to have the opportunity to talk with you about a field which promises to be a very interesting and productive one for teachers of English as a second language: non-verbal communication across cultures in ESOL and bilingual classrooms.

Talking about "culture," it has been quite a culture shock to get used to cold weather again, and if my voice cracks, it is one of the signs of the strain my body is undergoing, trying to switch cultural channels regarding temperature. However, getting used to new experiences in temperature has not been the only source of culture shock as a result of being in the States once again. After 10 years of absence, it shook me out of my normal cultural state of tropical calm and contentment to find that most everything works here to an unprecedented degree of efficiency (if compared to my own culture): telephones work to perfection, trains run on time, airplane tickets are sent to you through the mail, and when they say breakfast at MacDonald's closes at eleven a.m., it does close at eleven.

All these experiences have fascinated me, especially when I project them to our own field of teaching, and see them as examples of how two cultures in contact enrich each other.

ESOL and Bilingual Education make a lot of sense in a country like the United States, which is not a nation of one people, but of many peoples, trying to live together in peace and mutual respect. This amazing feat of the many and the different trying to live together with dignity was

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was basically the daring experiment and dream that the founding fathers of this country had in mind and made a reality when they brought forth this nation.

For a while there, the United States and its peoples seemed to have lost this dream. But I think this country is most decidedly regaining it. Such Congressional Acts as the Bilingual Education Act and the many others that have led to it are proof of this. Many people seem to agree that the new version of the American dream is "to find and experience the new enterprise of living together," as Don Jaime Benitez (1974), former President of the University of Puerto Rico, said at the New York Convention on Bilingual Education. Edward T. Hall, a famed American anthropologist, adds the following:

> (There must be) a rekindling of the adventuresome spirit and excitement of our frontier days...We are confronted with urban and cultural frontiers today...We need both excitement and ideas and we will discover that both are more apt to be found in people than in things,...in involvement rather than in detachment from life. (1966:187)

Today I would like to discuss with you the relatively new field of non-verbal communication, a field which I feel is rich in its possibilities for making our efforts in ESOL and Bilingual Education more effective in giving our students from so many different cultures better tools for a successful and richer life. I also feel it can give both the English speaking and non-English-speaking students a clearer vision of themselves and others, which I am sure will lead to better understanding and acceptance of those around.

Let me read this little poem to you, and take you from there into the

discussion of proxemics, haptics, kinesics, parakinsesics and their inclusion in our teaching. This is a poem by W.H. Auden; taken from *The Birth of Architecture.*

> Some thirty inches from my nose
> The frontier of my Person goes,
> and all the untilled air between
> is private "pagus" or demesne.
> Stranger, unless with bedroom eyes
> I beckon you to fraternize,
> Beware of rudely crossing it;
> I have no gun, but I can spit.

What is the message of the poem? In the field which studies space in interpersonal relationships across cultures, PROXEMICS, the personal (uninvadable, nontransgressible) distance at which you should stand away from somebody else in the United States (Anglos), and in many other northern countries of Europe, is from 18 to 30 inches. Of course, there is also the intimate distance at which people interrelate. In the United States, this distance is from skin contact to from 6 to 18 inches. This is a culturally determined, learned behavior carried out unconsciously day by day, and it differs from culture to culture. How does space function in Latin American countries and in southern European countries? There, the personal distance is what is intimate distance in the United States, from 6 to 18 inches. Thus, in dealing with Latins, many Americans feel that they want to spit because they find Latins too close, too pushy, and too "sexy." How do the Latins feel when they talk to Americans and see them cringing back to regain - without their knowing, of course - their culturally learned comfortable distance? Well, Americans seem aloof, cold,

uninterested, and perhaps even racially or politically prejudiced. This is an explosive area of interpersonal relationship. Still, even though it is such a delicate point between these cultures, I have never seen reference to space, or proxemies, incorporated into the instructions for teaching ESL dialogues to our Anglo population.

Let us now go into HAPTICS, the study of touching. You already know, I am sure, that together with most northern European countries, the United States belongs to the non-contact, non-touching cultures. I remember the strange experience I had on my first day in the United States just a month and a half ago, when I had to sit for about an hour in the lobby of the Law School at Temple University, which was filled with young students. During that hour of constant talking and bantering among the students, there was not a single instance of touching among them. We Latins touch, to a degree that is outrageous, threatening, and oftentimes insulting to most Angles. However, touching is also a way of "talking" in most Latin countries. Take a normal everyday greeting among Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, etc. If you have already met and are friends, there is constant touching and slapping of backs, kissing and rubbing of bodies. If two women of the same age and social status meet, there is hugging, kissing and rubbing of upper parts of bodies in some cases. If men of the same age and social status meet, there is the beating of backs, a hug maybe, and the firm shaking of hands. There are all kinds of non-verbal things involved and happening in even the simplest of greetings in all cultures. And, all of you know that greetings and leave-takings are one of the first dialogues to be learned in most ESL or foreign language courses. They are indeed very complex activities non-

verbally speaking. All of us are culture bound; we learned one way of behaving way back when we were small, and that is the "easy" and "right" way; it is our non-verbal vernacular. Not only that, but we cannot shed it easily, anymore than we can shed our language, or our eating habits. However, if culture is learned, then it can be taught. But is this part of culture being taught in school? Are we instructing our students in our ESL and bilingual programs that if they are Latins, they cannot go around over-squeezing Anglos? And are Anglos being taught that they should start squeezing their Latin friends if they do not want to be considered cold, unfriendly, rejecting and insulting?

My third example is taken from another type of difference between Anglo and Latin cultures. Most Anglos in the United States, most interpersonal relations among Anglos, whether formal or informal, are carried out in a one-to-one sequence. If you go to a store, the clerk takes care of one person at a time; you form lines at stamp windows, etc., for the same reason. I learned my lesson at Gimbels in New York City when I interrupted a dialogue a clerk was having with a customer to ask her about some beads she had in front of her. She snappily told me to wait my turn. Thus the term: mono (one) chronic (time) - one at a time. In Puerto Rico and in other Latin countries, a clerk takes care of two, three, four people at a time (poly [many] chronic [time]). A newcomer has priority over the previous customer. But there are limits. After five customers, I have seen clerks getting anxious. Some of them call the manager for help.

Shopping at stores is an important skill that any person living in the United States should master, even though self-service stores have reduced the problem somewhat. This difference should be included in our

curriculum, because the situation repeats itself, and not just at stores. Polychronism is applied in all interpersonal relationships in Latin cultures. Here's another example: if I, as a Puerto Rican teacher, am talking to one of my colleagues, one of my students, or to my Dean, and another colleague or student approaches me wanting to talk to me, I immediately cease talking to the person I was talking to, and acknowledge the newcomer. And the three of us talk! This situation repeats itself constantly whenever conversations between two persons are taking place in a public or semi-public place, like offices. Newcomers are never left out; in fact, they are invited to join a conversation that is already going on as a matter of courtesy. So when *do* you talk very privately? You have to do something very unusual for Puerto Ricans: you close your door.

I believe this pattern is so drastically different from the Anglo pattern that Puerto Ricans and other Latins must be taught how to deal with people in a monochronic cultural setting. In the same fashion, Anglos must be taught how to deal with Latins and their polychronic culture. I have seen Americans depart in despair from store counters in Puerto Rico and from friendly conversations because they insist on waiting their turn, or in speaking in a one-to-one order with their friend. At the stores, they tell the clerk they will wait their turn, when actually what they are doing is missing their turn completely.

Let me discuss KINESICS now, the field that studies body motions and gestures. Puerto Ricans have two very interesting gestures that many of you probably know quite well by now. I mean the wiggling of the nose to mean: "Who?" "What?" "What ails you?" Then, there is the pointing with puckered lips, which does not mean "the blowing of a kiss." It

means: "There." "Over there." "That one." "Those."

Now, a Puerto Rican may use these gestures as complete questions, instead of the verbal patterns. Oftentimes, when a teacher asks something in English and the students do not understand, the noses go into action. The pointing with the lips is used constantly to point, to request something a distance away, and even to send messages of warm fellowship when it is joined to a smile to mean: "Listen to that talk! That was a sweet thing to say." But to this day, I have never "seen" questions or expressions like these in English.

These wonderful gestures, which you can master here today, will not do in an English context. They are meaningless here. Puerto Ricans and other Latins must be taught, first of all, to realize that they wiggle their noses and point with their lips, since these are unconscious actions peculiar to their culture (a step in self-awareness, self-identity). Next, they must be taught that this form of kinesics, i.e.: this non-verbal wav of communicating in their culture, is nonexistent in the Anglo and northern European cultures. Third, they should be taught that even if they use the gestures - which they will - they must accompany them with words. Anglos should also be taught about this behavior, for they would be learning not just new gestures, but also the liberating truth that that there is incredible and exciting variety among humans when we communicate among ourselves. Moreover, both groups of students would also be learning to switch cultural channels, a skill no one can do without in this world of ours.

I have left out many other differences, which there is not time to discuss now. For example, a) personal vs. impersonal, b) tiempo Ingles vs. tiempo latino, c) bargaining vs. non-bargaining, d) noisy vs. silent

cultures, e) staring vs. non-staring, f) joking vs. non-joking, etc. All of these differences should be incorporated into ESL and Bilingual Education curricula.

Before concluding, I would like to present to you some observations from the researchers in the field of non-verbal communication that I think are fundamental to our ESOL and Bilingual Education programs, and which I hope you will remember in your classrooms, especially when you are teaching those very dehydrated dialogues in most of your textbooks.

Some of the scholars who have done, and are doing, extensive work in the field of non-verbal communication are Hall, Birdwhistell, Mead, Schefflen, Brier, Green, Cervenka, and Rosenthal, to name a few. Following are some key messages for you from them, messages all of us should remember, meditate upon, and try to apply to our classrooms.

> To focus exclusively upon the words humans interchange is to eliminate much of the communicational process from view, and thus, from purposive control. It is my guess that probably no more than 30% to 35% of the social meaning of conversational or an interaction is carried by words. Birdwhistell 1970:50.

> Still as of today, it is presumed that if both A and B (two speakers) have properly learned their grammar, have good enough dictionaries which they studied adequately, sopke loud enough and were neither of them deaf, and did not become too emotional, communication has taken place...Actually, the communication stream can be made up of multiple behavioral patterns existing on different levels. Research is slowly demonstrating that communicating is made up of levels of activity, the verbal being one among many others. (Birdwhistell 1970:88)

There is movement (kinesics), space (proxemics), how you order your activities (temporality), touching (haptics), although very little investigation has been carried out in the olfactory and thermal levels.

> We can no more understand communication by exhaustive investigation of language and paralanguage (intonation, stress, juncture) than we can understand physiology by, say, the exhaustive investigation of the circulatory or nervous system. Physiology

> as we know it is less than 100 years old. Little by little, we have come to understand the neural processes, then, endocrinology, and the circulation of the blood. However, until the living system as a whole was examined, modern physiology with its complex considerations of homeostasis, balance, organization of its sub-systems could not be conceived. (Birdwhistell 1970: 73-74)

ESL instruction is still about 100 years behind physiology, it seems. We still believe that communication and social competence is linguistically based. We, in dissecting "the cadaver" of communication and social interchange, have discovered a system: language. We seem to think it is all of communication, but it is not. There are other systems of communication besides language, and many scholars have been concerned with these other systems for a long time now: anthropologists, social scientists, and especially psychiatrists But not language teachers . . . as yet.

There are some additional reminders for us, that I want to pass on to you. Sapir tells us the following:

> We respond to gestures with an extreme alertness and ... in accordance with an elaborate and secret code that is written nowhere, known by none, and understood by all. (1921:556)

However, Birdwhistell, supported by Mead and many others, says:

> We have found no gesture or body motion which has the same social meaning in all societies. There is no body motion or gesture that can be regarded as a universal symbol. Not even a smile. In fact, the methods of organizing body motion into communicative behavior by various societies may be as variable as the structure of the languages of these societies. (1970:81)

In other words, if the markers or patterns of non-verbal levels are culture bound, learned behavior, there is great possibility of confusion when the messages are given in another cultural context or setting. "In the USA, we move and speak American English" (Birdwhistell 1970). In Puerto Rico, we move and speak Puerto Rican Spanish, and "never the twain shall

meet.".

In fact, - and a very dramatic one at that

> ... if the communicational behavior of an individual in our culture is sufficiently unexpected and idiosyncratic as to be beyond the range of our previous experiences, we may be unable to relate to him successfully. We usually tend to label such behavior as pathological. (Birdwhistell 1970:15)

To our culture-bound eyes and senses, people from other cultures behave strangely or even pathologically. What is totally natural in one culture may be perceived and interpreted as pathological in another.

This last comment explains my worry and concern regarding the present teaching of ESL here in the States, where so many different cultures meet. Our teaching has completely excluded the kinesis, proximic, haptic and parakinesic dimensions of communication.

I hope I have intrigued, interested and motivated you enough so that the next time you teach a dialogue or you interrelate with Latins or anybody else from another culture than your own, you stop to think about some of the things I have brought to your attention today, things that do not yet appear in the dialogue text but which should definitely be there. I hope many of you will become motivated enough to find out what those absent messages are, and start writing out the scripts that are missing, the non-verbal communication information that should accompany all oral interplay in any language teaching.

Some preliminary language materials incorporating non-verbal communication have recently been completed, with federal funds, in Pennsylvania. These may be obtained free of charge by writing T.A. Bonder, Bilingual ESL Center, 100 Franklin Street, New Holland, Pennsylvania 17557.

In closing, I would like to leave with you some thoughts form Edward T. Hall, taken from his well known book, *The Silent Language*.

> Man did not evolve culture as a means of smothering himself, but as a medium to move, live, breathe, and develop his own uniqueness...Full acceptance of the reality of culture would have revolutionary consequences, although (in studying it) we should expect resistance, for the universe does not yield its secrets easily, and culture is no exception. (However), in full understanding of what culture is should rekindle our interest in life, in finding out who we are, in trying to find out who others are. (1959:165-66)

I add that we, as teachers, are committed to this activity, that of discovery and of deepening insight, so critically important in this age of closed-in spaces, of shortened distances, and of multi-contacts with the many and the different.

There may come a time in the very near future when culture and all its systems are better known, **and the wave** the equivalent of what someone has called "musical scores" that can be learned by everyone. At this moment the task seems impossible to carry out. But it has been done before thousands of times in the history of man.

> Time, which is such a well-known system for us, and one we take very much for granted, was once a...system known only to a few priests along the Nile River who had perfected it in response to a *need* to forecast annual floods more accurately. (Edward T. Hall 1959:130)

There is such a pressing need at present: intercultural understanding, the carrying out of the new enterprise of learning to live together. Together but different. Let's get on with the task.

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GUIDELINES FOR THE CERTIFICATION AND PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES IN THE UNITED STATES *

This statement, designed primarily to apply to teachers of English to speakers of other languages in the United States of America, will assist teacher certification agencies and educational institutions in the establishment of certification standards for English-as-a-second-language teachers, and in the design and evaluation of ESL teacher education programs. The statement: (A) defines the role of the ESL teacher in American schools, (B) describes his personal qualities and professional competencies, and (C) states the objectives and characterizes important features of a teacher education program designed to develop ESL teachers of high professional ability.

FOREWORD

Teaching English as a second language has been an educational activity in this country for more than three hundred years. Only in the last twenty-fivehas it become a prefession, making systematic application of a collected body of knowledge combined with learning theory. Its importance has been heightened by the critical role of the English language in the nation's educational process and by the unfortunate circumstance that ethnic and racial minorities have not always been well served by classroom practices designed for native speakers of English.

**Revised by William E. Norris based on criteria adopted by the TESOL Guidelines Conference, May 29-30, 1970 and a preliminary draft by James E. Alatis. Foreword by Albert H. Marckwardt.*

These guidelines were distributed to the profession, discussed at the TESOL Convention in Washington in 1972 as well as at other conventions and among the TESOL regional affiliates, and ratified by the Executive Committee of TESOL on March 7, 1975 in Los Angeles.

The teacher of English as a second language has a difficult task. He must set the goals of achievement for his pupils higher than those of his colleagues in the modern foreign languages, yet he must adopt certain of their practices. For those whom he teaches, a working command of English is an educational essential, but this command must be acquired through methods which differ from those customarily employed by the teacher of English to native speakers of the language. In essence this constitutes the case for a special pattern of preparation for teachers of English as a second language.

We recognize that because of the great variation in educational institutions which prepare, or should prepare, such teachers, it is scarcely to the point to work out a set curriculum or to recommend a series of course titles. It is not only useful but urgent, however, to formulate the principles upon which such a program of teacher preparation should rest, especially at a time when education throughout the country must be diversified in a way which will recognize the existence of multilingual and multicultural behavior and when the English language must be viewed as a means of enabling the individual to participate in ever-widening social groups.

Accordingly we have set forth the principles which follow in the form of general guidelines which emphasize personal qualities, attitudes, skills, experience, and knowledge rather than courses and credit hours. The manner of the formulation owes much to the documents entitled *Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English* and *Guidelines for Teacher Education in Modern Foreign Languages*, and like them, represents the consensus of a number of leaders in the field, drawn from all levels of instruction and supervision, representing a broad range of experience and points of view.

Despite the fact that these guidelines are intended to be applicable to teachers at any level, one cardinal principle has been rigidly observed throughout, namely that the teacher of English as a second language should have the same general academic preparation as teachers of other subjects at comparable levels.

Although there are these elements in their preparation which teachers of English as a second language share with others, the uniqueness of their educational responsibility must not be overlooked, nor should we forget that the guidelines set forth here are designed to prepare teachers for this particular task. They are not guidelines for teachers of English in general. Nor do they fully cover for teachers of Standard English as a second dialect or for teachers in bilingual schools, although clearly they would have many elements in common with the preparation of such teachers. In their present form they represent the best effort of which the authors were capable, to develop the outlines of a program both humanely and scientifically oriented toward the achievement of a highly specific but nevertheless a socially critical educational goal.

QUALIFICATIONS AND GUIDELINES

The preparation of the American School Teacher. These guidelines are intended to suggest desirable competencies for the teacher of English to speakers of other languages. In common with that of all teachers, his preparation will be based on a sound *general education* - courses and experiences help him to become a well-educated person with a strong background in the liberal arts and sciences, including psychology. *Academic specialization* courses and experiences help him to become proficient in the area of concentration; and *professional education* courses and experiences help him prepare himself as a teacher.

The statement which follows presupposes concurrent or prior completion of the baccalaureate degree program and is therefore concerned primarily with academic specialization and professional education. Its purposes are: (A) to define broadly the role of the English-as-a-second-language teacher in American schools, (B) to describe his personal qualities and professional competencies, and (C) to state the minimal objectives for a teacher education program designed to develop professional competencies and to characterize the features of such a program.

A. THE ROLE OF THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

The teacher of English to speakers of other languages in American schools is expected to:

1. Progressively develop in his students comprehension of an ability to interact with English-speaking American society through mastery of communicative competence in English as it is used by the English-speaking population.

   Help his students gain mastery of both receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) English-language skills.

   Help his students gain an awareness of and respect for similarities and differences between the English-speaking culture and their own cultural heritage.

   Help his students gain knowledge of American social customs, traditions, folklore, history and literature in such a way as to contribute to their mastery of the language and culture, and their future educational and social development.

2. Evaluate his students' progress toward the above objectives, identify their strengths and weaknesses in performance, and adjust their instruction appropriately.

3. Make judicious selection and use of approaches, methods, techniques, procedures, materials and aids appropriate to effective language teaching for his pupils and curriculum objectives.

Evaluate the effectiveness of these teaching procedures and materials in bringing about student behaviors appropriate to the curriculum objectives, and revise their use as necessary.

Maintain vitality in the instructional program by implementing changes in the goals, procedures and materials whenever such changes are indicated by changes in the teaching situation, or by developments in language-teaching theory and practice.

4. Correlate the sequence and scope of his teaching with that in other instructional areas in the curriculum; and contribute to the definition of curriculum goals for linguistic minority students in English-as-a-second-language specifically, and in other areas generally.

B. PERSONAL QUALITIES, PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES AND EXPERIENCE OF THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

To achieve the objectives of his teaching role the teacher of English as a second language in American Schools is expected to:

1. Have personal qualities which contribute to his success as a classroom teacher, insure understanding and respect for his students and their cultural setting, and make him a perceptive and involved member of his community.

2. Demonstrate proficiency in spoken and written English as a level commensurate with his role as a language model. Whether he is a native-language or second-language speaker of English, his command of the language should combine qualities of accuracy and fluency; his experience of it should include a wide acquaintance with writings in it.

3. Have had the experience of learning another language and acquiring a knowledge of its structure; and have a conscious perception of another cultural system. If possible, the language and cultural system should be related to that of the population with which he is to work.

4. Understand the nature of language; the fact of language varieties-social, regional, and functional; the structure and development of the English language systems; and the culture of English-speaking people.

5. Have a knowledge of the process of language acquisition as it concerns first and subsequent language learning and as it varies at different age levels; and understand the effects on language learning of socio-cultural variables in the instructional situation.

6. Have an understanding of the principles of language pedagogy and the demonstrated ability, gained by actual teaching experience, to apply these principles as needed to various classroom situations and instructional materials.

7. Have an understanding of the principles, and ability to apply the techniques and interpret the results of second-language assessment of student progress and proficiency; and ability to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.

8. Have sophisticated understanding of the factors which contribute to the life styles of various peoples, and which determine both their uniqueness and their interrelationships in a pluralistic society.

C. OBJECTIVES AND FEATURES OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

A program to prepare a beginning English-as-a-second-language teacher must provide him with the opportunity to develop the academic and professional competencies set forth in Section B above. These competencies will be developed to a level of proven ability capable of enabling him to fulfill satisfactorily the role-objectives specified in Section A above, as demonstrated through actual teaching responsibility under experienced supervision.

The program features instruction and experiences which contribute directly to development of competencies in linguistics and English linguistics, psycholinguistics, language pedagogy and assessment, including supervised teaching experience, and studies in culture. In addition, the program

requires objective assessment of both the English and foreign-language proficiency of all candidates, and provides or arranges for supplementary instruction whenever necessary.

A teacher education program may be viewed as having five main components with overlapping competency objectives. The list of topics and experiences given here (with cross references to Section B above) is not intended to be exhaustive or limiting, but only broadly suggestive of the content of each instructional component.

1. *Academic specialization.* Courses and training with the primary objective of helping the student to understanding and knowledge of the nature of language, English-language systems, language learning, and language in culture.

a. Linguistics and English linguistics (B4) - the nature of language, its systematic organization, variation and change; major models of linguistic description; major subsystems of present-day English (grammatical, phonological/graphemic and lexical/semantic), its historical development and dialectical variation; contrastive linguistics with special reference to the comparison of English and a "linguistic minority" language.

b. Psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics (B5) - language acquisition processes in first and second language learning, age differentials in language learning, individual learning styles; basic socio-cultural variables in language use and language learning, types of bilingual and multilingual educational situations, social determiners of dialect and style.

c. Culture and society (B3, B4, B5, B8) - the elements of socio-cultural systems; cultural pluralism in American society; description, comparison and interrelationship of English-speaking and linguistic-

minority cultures; culturally determined life styles and learning styles and their effect on second language learning.

2. *Pedagogy*. Foundations, methods, and practicum - courses and training with the primary objective or providing theoretical and methodological foundations, and practical experience leading to competence in actual teaching situations.

a. Professional education - social foundations and organization of American education, human growth and development, learning theory, and curriculum development, including the place of English as a second language in the curriculum.

b. Second-language pedagogy (B6) - objectives, theoretical approaches to, and methods of teaching English as a second language; language-teaching techniques and procedures; curricula, teaching meterials and aids; adaptation of instructional materials to specific situations; professional information sources: journals, research reports, and professional organizations; design, implementation and evaluation of innovative materials and techniques.

c. Second-language assessment (B7) - principles of testing; techniques and interpretation of second-language assessment of student progress and proficiency; evaluation of teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.

d. Language teaching practicum (B6, B7) - systematic directed observation, supervised teaching practice, and progressive teaching responsibilities which contribute to experience and competence in the primary roles of the English-as-a-second-language teaching described in Section A above. (Although experience gained in the training program will usually be more extensive and direct in the roles that help shape student

behaviors (A1-A2) than in those roles more broadly concerned with curriculum development and evaluation (A3-A4), opportunities should be made available for some experience in all roles.)

(1) The institution provides opportunities for systematic, directed observation of a variety of English-as-a-second-language teaching situations for children, adolescents, and adults and beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of instruction, and which employ a representative variety of appropriate teaching methods, materials, and aids.

(2) The institution provides directed teaching practice with progressively increasing responsibility, under expert supervision in teaching situations appropriate to the student teacher's employment goals. Through this experience the candidate will both develop and demonstrate his actual and potential ability as an English-as-a-second-language teacher by achieving at least a "good" level of competence in the role-objectives of Section A above.

3. *Another language.* Learning experience, structural and cultural information (B). For those candidates who have not had recent experience learning another language, the institution offers, or provides by special arrangement, second-language instruction. Whenever possible, courses are available by which the candidate can gain knowledge of the linguistic structure of the language and features of the cultural system of the populatikn with which he intends to work.

4. *Evaluation of candidates.* Evaluation of each candidate's achievement in the areas of competence outlined above is an integral and systematic part of the teacher education program at all its stages (i.e., for admission to, retention in, and completion of the program).

a. English language proficiency (B2) of both native and non-native speakers is demonstrated by satisfactory completion of appropriate college-level course work requiring a high level of oral and written expression and/or objective assessment by standardized test instruments properly interpreted.

b. The institution publishes a clearly formulated policy concerning admission to, retention in, and successful completion of the teacher education program. The statement of this policy includes precise information about application procedures and criteria for admission to the program/ it indicates how and by what professional criteria students may be eliminated from the program; and it sets forth clearly the minimal academic achievement and level of teaching competence required for successful completion of the program.

c. The institution evaluates the candidate's achievement by instruments appropriate to the measurement of each competency, including direct evaluation of teaching performance. The results of the evaluation are available for advising the candidate in his continuing education and career development, and for recommending, licensing, and employing him. His readiness to teach is certified in the name of the whole institution. An official designated to make such certification is able to demonstrate that he has received assessments concerning the candidate's performance in all units of the teacher education program.

5. *Staff and facilities.* The institution has a staff whose combined competencies are superior to the level of instructional proficiencies which are the objectives of the program. The teachers and supervisors of courses and training in teaching methodology are themselves superior in the competencies outlined in Section B. above.

The institution maintains an up-to-date curriculum materials collection comprising materials, aids, and equipment commonly used in teaching English as a second language at all levels. Journals, research reports, and other sources of supportive professional information are available and kept current.

The institution maintains close contact with the instructional programs in which candidates serve their observation and directed teaching practice assignments.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITIONS PERTINENT TO THE TEXT

TEFL (EFL) Teaching English as a Foreigh Language...identifies programs of English language instruction in parts of the world where some other language is spoken, e.g., just as the study of Chinese in United States schools is classed as "foreign language" study, so the study of English in France comes under the heading of "foreign language" study. An English language program in Turkey, therefore, would be an example of a TEFL program.

TESL (ESL) Teaching English as a Second Language...identifies programs of English language instruction found in English speaking areas but intended to benefit non-English speaking persons in those areas, e.g., and English language program of instruction in London for Italian speakers living there would be an example of a TESL program; all English language courses for Spanish speakers offered in the New York City public schools are TESL programs. We can now make the following TEFL/TESL distinction: the same English language course for non-English speakers offered in Mayaguez, Puerto Rico and in Brooklyn, New York, would be given two different classifications, the one in Mayaguez would be an example of TEFL, and the one in Brooklyn would be TESL.

TESOD (ESOD) or SESD Teaching English to Speakers of Other Dialects or Standard English as a Second Dialect...identifies programs of General Standard English instruction, generally found in English speaking communities and intended to benefit English speakers who use a non-standard pattern of English, e.g., a course in General Standard American English for Cockney English speakers would be an example of TESOD.

TESOL (ESOL) Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages... is simply a broader classification of convenience to include all three already identified under one heading, i.e., TEFL, TESL, and TESOD are all specialized activities under the heading of TESOL.

These classifications can be conveniently projected to include other language study areas, e.g., S for Spanish, C for Chinese, G for German, P for Portuguese, N for Navajo, etc. For Spanish language study programs for example, we can establish the following classifications:

TSFL (SFL) Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language...for Spanish language programs found in China, Japan, England, Turkey, the United States, etc.

TSSOD (SSOD) Teaching Spanish to Speakers of Other Dialects... as in the case of standard Castilian courses for Andalusian Spanish speakers.

TSSOL (SSOL) Teaching Spanish to Speakers of Other Languages... a convenience classification which would include TSFL, TSSL, and TESSOD.

English as a Second Language is also used to identify the use of English (By common agreement) as a lingua franca in multilingual areas, as is the case in some of the new countries of Africa where the citizenry is composed of numerous different speech communities, and where no satisfactory "official" language of the new nation. A temporary and makeshift solution is to make some outside language, be it English or French, or Portuguese, or some other, the language of government and official transactions. This type of solution avoids intense, internal jealousies but commits everyone to having to learn a second language.

Services Provided by the New York State Education Department, Bureau of Bilingual Education

The Bureau of Bilingual Education, with regional offices in Albany, Buffalo, New York City and Long Island, provides services to the State in bilingual education/English as a second language programs. The Bureau's activities, presently involving twenty-two different language groups, include the following:

I. Technical Assistance to school districts in areas such as: on-site teacher training workshops; school-community relations; desegregation planning; and preparation of proposals for funding. Technical assistance is also provided by letter and telephone.

II. Monitoring of ESEA Title VII, ESEA Title I and State Chapter 720 programs in the schools.

III. Publications presently include: Haitian, Chinese, Spanish, Native American, Greek, French and English as a second language materials, documents on bilingual programs and testing, teachers' handbooks, and a quarterly newsletter.

IV. Media Projects include: a series of public service announcements on bilingual education, video-tapes of conference presentations such as Judith Nine-Curt's presentation on Puerto Rican body language, Spanish translations of several films, and a half-hour video tape on bilingual education.

V. Resource Library (in Albany office) includes a wide range of materials in bilingual education and English as a second language. Upon request, materials are available on loan to schools throughout the State.

VI. Program Planning and Coordination for bilingual education, including

the gathering of statistics demonstrating the need for (and performance of) bilingual education programs.

VII. Bilingual Higher Education services are provided by Bureau of Bilingual Education personnel working in the Grants Administration Office.

VIII. Bilingual Migrant Programs are developed and coordinated for migrant children throughout the State.

The Bureau of Bilingual Education serves thousands of children and adults in all regions of the State. For more information, please call:

Albany Office:	
Coordinating and Central New York	(518) 474-8775
Buffalo Office:	
Western New York	(716) 686-2087
Long Island Office:	
Long Island and Westchester	(516) 997-8700 ext. 370
New York City Office:	
New York City Area	(212) 488-7294
Higher Education Office:	
Statewide	(518) 474-5705